The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 7, 1887.

The Week.

THE celebration of the Fourth of July at Gettysburg was perhaps the most impressive social incident that has taken place since the close of the civil war. Many things conspired to make it such. The field of Gettysburg, of all the battlefields of the war, is the one around which the greatest popular interest gathers. Other engagements were as hotly contested. Several others, Vicksburg for example, had more immediate and brilliant consequences. Some others, Nashville and Five Forks for example, were more decisive. Nevertheless, popular attention fixes itself upon the tremendous three-days' struggle that took place at Gettysburg as the turning-point of the conflict. It is remembered, also, that upon that ground Abraham Lincoln uttered the few words that summed up, as no one else had done before or has done since, the thought and purpose of the North in the war for the Union. A special and unique, and almost intense, interest had been given to this union of hands at Gettysburg by the recent battle-flag order of the President. Everybody was willing that those who captured the flags should hand them back. In fact, everybody was ready to applaud the act of returning them, provided only that the channel was the right one. If all the flags had been sent back in a mass by President Grant, nobody would have found fault with him. Battle-flags are frequently exchanged by the survivors of regiments and divisions without reproof and without special notice. It was part of the programme that the standards taken by the Pennsylvania troops at Gettysburg should be publicly returned at this celebration, but the political turmoil which followed the general order of the War Department prevented the carrying out of this intention. The failure to return the flags did not, however, detract from the felicity of the occasion, since the good feeling was expressed in the intention, and was shown forth as heartily in other ways.

The Fourth was a day in which there surely ought to have been some cursing done about battle-flags. Yet, as far as we can learn, the leading cursing men were silent. Not a curse came from Fairchild, Foraker, Halstead, Reid, Phelps, Elkins, or any other son of thunder. What was the reason of this? The reason was undoubtedly that the earlier cursing did no good. Not one stroke of paralysis has it brought down on any friend of peace and goodwill. This shows that the cursing men have not the influence with God Almighty which they evidently thought they had, when they asked Him to kill or disable people for trying to wipe out the memories of a bloody civil war. Their curses, in other words, they see now, are wasted on the desert air. As far as can be ascertained, what God Almighty desires is that Americans should hereafter dwell together in harmony, and that no man should occupy his time in counting up how many of his countrymen he slaughtered or maimed, or how many memorials he has of the agony, and sorrow, and humiliation he inflicted on them. In fact, we think the times are ripe for some cursing on the other side, and that a man who prayed that the promoters of strife and the harborers of bloody memories might be afflicted with the measles, or sprain their ankles, or be prostrated by a severe colic, would probably meet with a certain measure of success.

The District Attorney and his assistants are entitled to great credit for the very able manner in which they presented the case against Sharp. We can recall no trial in recent years in which the city has been more efficiently served than it has in this. Step by step, with the most careful deliberation, and with the nicest calculation as to effect, the mass of circumstantial evidence against the defendant was unfolded; and when the work was completed, the able counsel for Sharp discovered that no defence was possible. Mr. Martine's wisdom in trusting this work to his assistants, Messrs. Nicoll and Semple, was thus most signally vindicated. To Mr. Nicoll the highest praise is due, for it is a well-known fact that he has from the outset had special charge of all the "boodle" cases. He has now the distinction of not only presenting the first case for bribe giving ever brought into court here, but of winning it on its merits. The choice of Col. Fellows to sum up was no less wise, for his forcible presentation of the case undoubtedly had its influence upon the jury.

Still, we are inclined to the opinion that the jury had little doubt about their verdict from the moment that the defence so visibly collapsed. The prosecution had shown, in logical and clear order, that Jacob Sharp had been for thirty years spending money like water to get a railway in Broadway; that he was, during the very time that the Aldermen were bribed, spending money, in cash, more profusely than ever, and that the $1,000 and $500 bills which he was "diffusing" generally, subsequently appeared in the bank accounts of at least seven of the Aldermen; that some of the Aldermen and the go-betweens that Sharp employed are fugitives from justice; that from the time of the first charges against Sharp to the present, he had refused to give any explanation of his use of money, or of his relations with Mololoney and the Aldermen. It was shown, in fact, that the Aldermen were bribed to pass the Broadway franchise, and that in passing it they were doing precisely what Sharp, above all other men, was moving heaven and earth to induce them to do. The only satisfactory answer to this indictment was to put Sharp on the stand, and let him give an honest and satisfactory explanation of all the suspicious circumstances surrounding his conduct.

It is but right and proper, of course, that the hard-working staff of the District Attorney's office should now take a vacation, and that nothing more should be attempted against the remaining "boodlers" until after the hot months. But we trust these things will not lead the District Attorney to forget Cleary. His trial has been the one failure of the campaign against the Aldermen, and was very unfortunate, as there is no reasonable doubt that he was as bad as any of them, if not worse. His case was dropped in order to prepare for Sharp's, as we understood at the time. Now that Sharp's has been brought to a triumphant close, we trust that Cleary's will be taken up again in the fall. The chances of convicting him have undoubtedly been greatly improved by the Sharp verdict, and Col. Fellows, who was absent at the first trial, would undoubtedly be able to play his part in the next one.

The way in which the Mayor has filled the Corporation Counsel's office will, we think, cause general disappointment and regret. Mr. Lacombe had not only taken it out of politics, but had brought it to a very high degree of efficiency. He made it, in truth, such a Law Department as the city has not previously had. This fact greatly increased the Mayor's responsibility in supplying his place. It imposed on him in the eyes of the public the duty of maintaining, if possible, the standard Mr. Lacombe had set up. This made the rumors which had been afloat for some weeks, touching the kind of lawyers among whom he was searching for a successor, little short of alarming, though they were to us absolutely incredible. We did not believe it possible he was seriously considering the "claims" of a low grade of Tammany politicians. And yet there appears to have been some sort of foundation for them; for although the new appointee, Mr. Morgan J. O'Brien, may not be a low grade of Tammany politician, it is as a Tammany politician, and not as a lawyer, that he is best known in this city to the few who have ever heard of him. He may turn out a fit person to take charge of the large business of the city, but it is not quite fair to ask the taxpayers to take any man's word for it. Fitness for such a place should be a matter of notoriety, and not of the information and belief of a few persons. The Mayor's reason for not appointing the one man whose eminent fitness is notorious, Mr. Dean, Mr. Lacombe's first assistant, viz., "because of the very injudicious and indiscreet manner in which his friends have acted," is one which we are sure he would hardly stand by in calmer moments. The only good reason for appointing Mr. Dean would have been that he was the best man for the place; his wishing the place would have been no reason at all. If he was the best man for it, the people of the city were entitled to him as their counsel at Mr. Hewitt's hands, and the conduct of his friends had no more to do with the matter than the conduct of Mr. O'Brien's friends. The Mayor is not charged with the duty of punishing injudicious friends for indiscreet conduct, but with that of filling the municipal offices with the best material he can get.

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The explanation given for the President's unfortunate appointment of Leonard A. Giegerich as Internal Revenue Collector of the Third District is, that it is a "recognition" of Tammany Hall. If this be true, it only shows how impossible it is for any official to "recognize" Tammany with credit to himself or justice to the public. Mr. Giegerich is the son of a liquor-dealer, and owes his position in "politics" to the liquor influence which first made him a member of Tammany Hall and then a member of the Assembly. His record in the Assembly last winter consisted mainly of vociferous opposition to the High-License Bill, and of a proposition to make it compulsory upon the railways to carry members of the Legislature free. He declined the pass which had been sent him, and in forgetfulness or ignorance of the fact that the law provides for the payment of mileage to legislators, he introduced a bill making it compulsory upon all railways to give free transportation to members of the Legislature. To put a man capable of such a proposition in charge of an office which collected during the last fiscal year over $6,000,000 for the Government, is not making of public office a public trust, but quite the contrary. It is simple truth to say that no private business of one-tenth that importance and magnitude would ever be intrusted to young Giegerich. He has never had any more important share in business than assisting his father behind the bar. The only use he can make of the office is to put "politics" into it, and give Tammany Hall all the "places" possible in its service.

There are unpleasant stories coming from Boston about charges made or proposed in the Post-office in that city by Gen. Corse. Good officers have, it is said, received notice of dismissal for reasons which seem absurd on their face, and which are generally believed to be mere covers for the ordinary political "removals," or, in other words, the displacement of Republicans to make way for Democrats. We shall not comment on these things until we know more about them, further than to say that anybody who supposes that the Administration can be strengthened in Massachusetts by disregard of business rules in the conduct of the public offices, is a foolish person, of whom the President and Postmaster-General should beware. In this State, barring some antics of Mr. Beattie, the Surveyor, in the Custom-House, everything looks well. The State Civil-Service Commission, which has just sustained a serious loss in the death of Col. Morrison, the Chief Examiner, has happily been able to fill his place by one of the warmest, ablest, most energetic, and upright friends of reform in the country, Mr. William Potts, who has long been the Secretary of the Civil-Service Reform Association in this city. Our Post office, too, remains firm as a rock amid the raging seas of local corruption. It will be sad if Massachusetts becomes at this time of day an awful example.

Our esteemed friend and contemporary Cyrus W. Field has finished playing games of infancy with Jay Gould. He began six or seven years ago "playing bear" with Manhattan to Gould's bull, and has ended by playing bull to Gould's bear. In both games, we regret to say, he was worsted. The bystanders have long predicted how it would turn out. They have said to each other as they watched the gambols that Cyrus had a joyous and sanguine nature, while Gould was cold, selfish, and calculating, and that a day would come when Gould would take the meanest advantage of his too confiding friend. The people down in Wall Street, who were very much mystified about the tumble in Manhattan the other day, say now that they can see through it all, and that their worst fears have been realized. They say that it was not on account of poor Ives that Gould broke the market, but on account of Cyrus himself. They say that Gould knew that Cyrus had borrowed more money on Manhattan stock at high figures than prudence would justify; that he (Gould) knew beforehand, through some clerk or copyist, what Judge Ingraham's decision in the Third Avenue case would be, and that the temporary stringency in money happened just at the right time to make a dash at Cyrus's pocketbook a promising venture. Hence these tears.

The sequel is well known. Gould poured more Manhattan stock on the market than Cyrus could "absorb" at 156½. The price fell to 115. The lenders of money on Manhattan were about to call lustily for their money and throw out every share of Manhattan from their loans, when, to their complete surprise, a shower of certified checks descended upon Wall Street, and all the large loans were taken up. This, they say, was Gould's money paying Cyrus's debts, but paying them on condition of a future settlement on Gould's terms. By these terms Cyrus handed over 50,000 shares of Manhattan to Gould at 120. How much of this stock was acquired at 156½ or higher, we are not officially advised. Gould, who has a fine sense of humor underneath a prosaic and cold exterior, says that he considers Manhattan one of the best properties in the country. Evidently he must so regard it, or he would not take as much as $6,000,000 worth in a job lot. The people who do business down town are naturally much moved by this affecting incident, because they cannot bear to see a confiding and joyous nature betrayed and trampled on in this ruthless manner.

A new constitution has been adopted by the Knights of Labor, including a section which provides for the creation and disbursement of a fund to aid coöperative enterprises. Each local assembly is required to collect and deposit a sum not less than two cents per month for every member in good standing. The money is to be invested by the Coöperative Board, and profits are to be divided equally between the General Assembly, the coöperative fund, and the workmen who create the profit. This is hailed as a new idea among the Knights, but as a matter of fact it is a return to one of the first principles of the Order as it was conceived by its founder, Uriah S. Stevens. His plan was for a union of all laboring men for the purposes of self-education and self-benefit, and one of the necessities in his scheme was coöperation. In accordance with this idea, a coöperative board of six members was added to the other officers, and efforts were made to establish stores on a coöperative basis for the benefit of members of the Order. All these experiments failed, chiefly because of inefficient management. An Insurance Association was also formed, with a secretary appointed by the General Assembly. This was based upon the mutual-benefit principle, the plan being to give $1,000 to the family of a deceased member by an assessment of 25 cents upon each 5,000 members who joined the Association. Membership was not compulsory, any Knight between eighteen and fifty being allowed to join on payment of $1.25. But this plan failed through lack of support. The majority of Knights were so much wrapped up in the strikes and boycotts of the present that they took no thought of the future.

The new coöperative plan is likely to fail for the same reason as the old. In fact, so long as the Knights are composed of such stuff as at present, there is no chance for even a fair trial of anything like coöperation. They are not seeking to make the most of what they receive and to fit themselves by industry and study for deserving more, but all their energies are concentrated upon forcing from their employers higher wages by means of strikes and boycotts. Nothing could be more unlike the original idea of Stevens than the present Order of Knights as it is led by Powderly and the Quinns, Dunns, and Martin Ironses. All experiments in coöperation have demonstrated that a coöperative concern of any kind succeeds only when it has the services of the best class of workingmen. Just as soon as the lazy and incompetent are given equal prominence with the most industrious and capable, the coöperative scheme fails. In other words, coöperation must be conducted upon the same principles that the capitalist employer observes in his business, or it breaks down. Now the Knights insist that all laborers, good and bad, lazy and industrious, must be treated exactly alike, must have the same wages, and must make the injury of one, no matter how dishonest or lazy he may be, the concern of all. No scheme of coöperation can long exist upon that basis, no matter how regular and heavy may be the assessments for its support.

Attention has been called lately to the refusal of our public authorities to allow a few foreign silk-weavers and zinc-smelters to land here, while whole ship-loads of unskilled laborers, "the offscourings of Italy and Hungary," are allowed to come. The reason is, as the *Times* states, that a law of Congress prohibits the landing of any person who comes here under a contract for work. He might come under a contract for idleness. Indeed, many come in that way and are freely received. It may be that nobody in this country can do the particular work which the "contract laborer" is hired to do. It may be that he is brought hither to establish a new industry. All those things go for naught. If he comes under

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an agreement to earn his own living, he must be bundled on shipboard and sent back home. It all seems very strange until we learn that this law was passed at the instance of Labor. It is akin to the various Prison Labor bills that are now agitating the bosoms of statesmen and statisticians whose object is to secure leisure, and healthful amusements, and mental culture, to convicts.

The formal excommunication of McGlynn has been ordered from Rome, and will in due time be published by the Archbishop. It will be interesting from this date to watch the sure and rapid disappearance of McGlynn as a "force" in politics. Nobody ought to be better able to calculate the time required for this than McGlynn, but he seems not to have been able to realize what he was calling down upon his own head. So long as he was merely in dispute with the local church authorities, he was able to have followers and sympathizers both in and out of his own church; but from the moment he is excommunicated all will be changed. No good Catholic can follow him after that, and as all his following which is not Catholic is political, that, too, will drop away from him, for no political organization can afford to have him for a member. He may go on for a while abolishing poverty, but it will not be long before his own poverty will be the most serious problem confronting him.

The new High-License Law for Minnesota went into effect on Friday, and its influence as a restriction upon the traffic is strikingly shown at the very outset. It requires a license fee of $1,000 in all cities having a population of 10,000 or more, and of $500 in all other places. Returns from each county, showing the number of applications for licenses under the new law, were received on June 30, and they showed a falling off of nearly a fifth from the number under the old law, there being only 1,866, against 2,296 last year. There are many old licenses in St. Paul and other localities which will not expire for some time yet, and when those run out there is likely to be a still further reduction.

We recently noted the fact that the prohibitory law in Maine was being openly nullified by the sale of imported liquors in the original packages, the dealers claiming the right to make such sales under a decision of the United States Supreme Court rendered many years ago. The State authorities have concluded to test the question whether this decision really sustains a citizen of Maine in breaking the State law which forbids the sale of liquor. The Governor a few days ago sent letters to the Attorney-General and to the district attorneys of the various counties, directing them to institute proceedings against such liquor-sellers, and the first steps have been taken in Augusta, where the entire stock of Michael Burns, the most notorious offender, has been seized. Burns asserts that he has the law on his side, and will carry the matter into the Federal courts, so that the question will doubtless ultimately reach the Supreme Court.

The people of Manitoba find themselves harnessed to the Canada Pacific Railway with the most unpleasant strictness. This company receives from the Dominion Government a monopoly of the Manitoba traffic by virtue of a provision of law that no other company shall build a line within twenty-five miles of the United States frontier until the expiration of twenty years from the completion of the Canadian Pacific. The latter company owns the present line from Winnipeg to Pembina, the point of connection with the St. Paul, Minneapolis and Manitoba Railroad. Of course, they have it in their power to make rates high enough to turn the bulk of the trade which formerly went to St. Paul and other American cities over their long line to Montreal, and this they will of course do, because it is all the traffic they can get for the line which follows the north shore of Lake Superior. The Manitobans ought to have foreseen this, and either prevented the making of such a contract, or filed such a protest against it as would furnish them a good moral basis for fighting against it. Having neglected to do this, they find themselves "bound hand and foot," for although they might go on building their new road to the United States boundary if they had the money, or might raise the money if they could give a good mortgage, yet, having neither money nor security, their threats are likely to avail nothing. There is abundant capital in the United States that would be readily invested in the bonds of the proposed railway if the investment were not forbidden by the superior political power of the Dominion.

The great and apparently unexpected victory of the English Liberals in the southern division of Lincolnshire, at a season, too, when the farm laborers are peculiarly open to intimidation, seems to have infused fresh courage into the Gladstoneites and spread corresponding dismay among the Liberal-Unionists. The latter have apparently been flattering themselves, as the Tories did in 1879, that as long as they were approved by London society and the clubs they had nothing to fear anywhere else. But the truth, we presume, is, that the passage of a very truculent and perpetual coercion bill for Ireland as the one piece of legislation of the session is more than the provincial Liberals can stomach, whatever they may think of Gladstone's scheme of home rule.

The difficulty Turkey is making over the signing of the convention with Great Britain about the occupation of Egypt bids fair to result in the indefinite continuance of the occupation. That is to say, Lord Salisbury will make answer to the remonstrances of France (the only Power which directly cares about the occupation), that he has tried to make an arrangement for leaving the country, but, owing to the obstinacy of the titular owner, was unable to carry it into effect. Russia does not care who has Egypt, but finds the occupation by England useful as a means of stirring up trouble between England and France and England and Turkey; and much the same thing may be said of Germany. So that they would probably both be pleased to have the occupation prolonged, in order to keep open a useful sore.

There is a great protectionist splutter in Germany, growing out of the fact that a contract for 4,500 tons of steel rails for a new German railway has been awarded to a Belgian company who were the lowest bidders. The price at which the contract was made was 110.90 marks per 1,000 kilos, duty paid. The London *Economist* figures this as equal to £3 16s. per ton at the mill, which would be equivalent to $18.47. The duty is 25 marks, about $5.50 per ton. The indignation of the German rail-makers, who have been pluming themselves lately on taking some foreign contracts away from the English, resembles in many particulars the explosion of wrath against the late Mr. Vanderbilt in the year 1879, when he gave a large contract for steel for the New York Central Railroad to British manufacturers, in the face of a duty supposed and intended to be prohibitive. The railway directors are denounced in the protectionist newspapers as unpatriotic in buying foreign rails, even though they are offered at a lower price than German rails. As the railway in question has a subvention from the Government, being in part one of the new strategic lines, it is looked upon by the domestic railmakers as peculiarly their plunder, upon the theory that while the directors might have some excuse for looking sharply after their kreutzers in behalf of a wholly private company, they have no such excuse when the taxpayers foot the bills in part. The utmost endeavors of the German malcontents (who, by the way, denounced the Belgian contractors for "starving their own workmen") failed to shake the determination of the railway directors, who probably thought if the Belgian workmen were starving it would be an act of mercy to give them something to do.

The air is full of rumors about the impending bankruptcy of the Panama Canal. The latest accounts from the Isthmus represent that an important and costly section of the work already excavated is filling up by the sliding of an adjoining mountain; that the moving mass is too great to be held by any retaining wall; that the great problem of controlling the Chagres River has not yet been touched; that the funds in hand will suffice for only four months more, and that the chance of getting any more money is exceedingly slender. But it is noticed at the same time that Panama shares are pretty firm on the Paris Bourse, varying no more than those of the Suez Canal, or the Orleans Railway, or even the Bank of France. For example, the decline in Panama for the week ending June 16 was 3.75 fr., while the decline of Suez was 12.50, that of Orleans 6.25, and of the Bank of France 40.00. Taking account of the selling rate of these several securities, the percentage of decline was about the same in each, and this shows that at the present time Panama follows the market, and does not exhibit any special or peculiar weakness. Yet it is plain to every disinterested observer that the Lesseps company cannot finish the work, and that, if they could do so, they could not earn their fixed charges.

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SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, June 29, to TUESDAY, July 5, 1887, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE survivors of the Philadelphia Brigade of the Union Army, and of Pickett's division of the Confederate Army, which were engaged in the battle of Gettysburg, met on the battlefield July 2, and for the two days following exchanged compliments and made demonstration of their regard for one another. In a letter expressing regret that he could not attend, President Cleveland wrote: "The friendly assaults there [on the battlefield] to be made will be resistless because inspired by American chivalry, and its results will be glorious, because conquered hearts will be its trophies of success. Thereafter this battlefield will be consecrated by a victory which shall presage the end of the bitterness of strife, the exposure of the insincerity which conceals hatred by professions of kindness, the condemnation of frenzied appeals to passion for unworthy purposes, and the beating down of all that stands in the way of the destiny of our united country."

A bronze equestrian statue of Gen. Burnside was unveiled at Providence July 4. It stands on a granite pedestal sixteen feet high, and is one and a half times the size of life. The aim was to represent Burnside as he appeared in the field. The sculptor was Launt Thompson. An oration was delivered by Gen. Horatio Rogers. At Hartford, Conn., July 2, about fifty descendants of Dr. Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet celebrated the centennial of his birth, and dedicated a memorial window. He was the first person who taught the sign language to mutes.

On the night of July 4, a party from Portland, Ore., illuminated the summit of Mount Hood, the tallest snow-covered peak in Oregon, more than 11,000 feet high. The light was seen in Portland, a distance of fifty-one miles in a straight line. For the first time in many years there was a general celebration of the Fourth of July at Salt Lake City, alike by the Mormons and the "Gentiles."

Farmers in the vicinity of the great gas wells near Kokomo, Ill., on the night of July 4 closed a grand harvest jubilee and exhibition of wheat-cutting by natural-gas light. Self-binders were run all night, and men shocked wheat at midnight by the light of the gas.

In an address at Saybrook, Ill., July 4, Senator Cullom expressed the opinion that immigration should be "so regulated that the 18,000,000 persons now in this country engaged in gainful occupations should not be thrown out of employment or forced to accept wages which will not support them and their families, and give them a fair chance in the race of life." On the same day Mr. Powderly, the Master Workman of the Knights of Labor, said at Scranton, Pa., that every immigrant should be required to show that he was self-supporting for one year before landing on these shores.

Senator Cullom, one of the framers of the Inter-State Commerce Law, declared at a meeting of the Illinois Grain Merchants' Association, June 29, that he did not think it would be repealed. "If," said he, "any persons or corporations imagine it will, they may as well dismiss that expectation. Its substantial provisions have come to stay, because the people will find out, if they have not found out, that they are in the interest of the general welfare."

The transcontinental railway companies have decided to ignore the long-and-short-haul section of the Inter-State Commerce Law after the expiration of the suspension granted by the Inter-State Commission, and to continue to make lower rates from Pacific Coast points than from interior intermediate points until the practice shall have been decided by the United States Courts to be contrary to the law. This is in accordance with the decision of the Inter-State Commerce Commission that it has no right permanently to suspend the law, but that the railroads themselves must determine whether they may ignore section 4 or not, and if their action is found to be illegal by the courts they must take the consequences. The subject can come before the courts only by a suit against one or more of the roads.

Judge Deady, in the United States District Court at Portland, Ore., has given a judicial interpretation of the long-and-short-haul clause of the Inter-State Commerce Law. The receiver of the Oregon and California Road filed a petition asking whether under the law such rates may be made for through traffic as will enable his road to compete for it at points where competition by water or rail exists, although the rates for the long haul between those points may be less than those for a shorter haul in the same direction between said places. The Judge in effect repeated a former decision, in which he authorized the receiver to make a lower rate for a competitive long haul than for a short haul, notwithstanding the act of the Oregon Legislature known as the Hoult Law, which is in effect the same as the long-and-short-haul clause of the Inter-State Law; and he held that the Inter-State Commission is intended to prevent discrimination between long and short hauls, except where they are made under substantially dissimilar circumstances and conditions, and that freight carried to or from a competitive point is always carried under substantially dissimilar circumstances and conditions from that carried to or from non-competitive points.

The total receipts of the United States Government for the fiscal year ended June 30 were $371,180,893, made up as follows: Customs $217,403,983, internal revenue $119,136,447, miscellaneous $34,640,463. The decrease in the public debt for the fiscal year was $109,707,046.38.

Of the 57 clerks in the office of the Quartermaster-General at Washington who have been examined for promotion under the new civil-service rules, 30 are men and 27 women. Six men and two women failed to attain the minimum of 75 out of a possible 100, and the women made a better showing than the men.

A meeting was held at Salt Lake City June 30 to formulate a petition for the admission of Utah into the Union. The chairmen of the Executive Committees of the Republican and Democratic parties on June 2 published a notice that "the whole affair is a Church party movement, conducted solely by members of the Mormon Church to obtain for it Statehood. The earnest private solicitation of many of them failed to induce a single non-Mormon to become a delegate. All non-Mormons in Utah oppose the movement as insincere, and fraught with serious consequences if successful."

According to the account kept by the *Railway Age* of Chicago, the total miles of railway track laid in the United States between January 1 and July 1 is 3,700, and many more miles of roadbed are in preparation.

The record of cases of yellow fever at Key West on July 5 was: Total cases, 63; deaths, 20; discharged cured, 12; now sick, 30.

In northwestern Illinois and in parts of Wisconsin there has been such a long drought that the crops are seriously damaged, and in some places all the vegetation has withered.

A law enacted by the last Illinois Legislature has gone into effect that forbids, under a penalty of $20 fine for every violation, the giving or selling of tobacco, cigars, or cigarettes to any person under sixteen years of age except upon the written order of parent or guardian.

The new High-License Law in Minnesota, which requires the payment of a liquor-license fee of $1,000 in cities of 10,000 people or more and $500 elsewhere, went into effect July 1.

The Prohibitionists of Ohio on June 30 nominated Morris Sharpe for Governor and adopted a resolution in favor of female suffrage. Of the 500 delegates to the Convention, 200 were preachers, 40 were physicians, and 20 were lawyers; and 156 had been Democrats. The enforcement of the prohibitory law at Atchison, Kan., has so reduced the revenue of the government that the town is not lighted, and the Mayor has informed the firemen and all the policemen but two that they cannot longer be paid.

The Ohio State Convention of the Union Labor Party at Columbus, July 5, nominated a State ticket headed by John Seitz for Governor.

E. Henry Lacombe vacated the office of Corporation Counsel for New York city July 1 and entered upon the duties of Associate Judge of the United States Circuit Court; and Morgan J. O'Brien was appointed in his place by Mayor Hewitt.

The formation of negro clubs in South Carolina, chiefly in Greenville County, provoked fears of a strike by the laborers and rumors of plans for violence. On June 30 meetings of white men were held from which armed squads were sent to the secretaries of the "Hoover" clubs, the name that the organization had taken, and they were forced to give up their books. Members of clubs were examined, and their testimony showed that they had joined the organization without any definite purpose, and that no harm was likely to come of it unless visiting agitators used it to frighten them into violent action. The negroes were "warned" and released.

The case of Jacob Sharp, tried for bribing New York Aldermen, was given to the jury June 29, and they found him guilty, but recommended him to the mercy of the Court. Motion for a new trial will be heard July 13, and on that day sentence will be pronounced.

The honorary degree of Doctor of Laws was conferred by Harvard on Charles Eliot Norton of Cambridge, and J. Hammond Trumbull of Hartford; and by Yale on John Randolph Tucker of Virginia, Orville H. Platt, Senator from Connecticut, John S. Beach, and Chauncey M. Depew of New York.

The gifts to Yale University since last September amount to $277,000, and, with certain bequests to be realized at a later time, to $300,000. Mr. A. S. Barnes of this city has presented $40,000 to Cornell University for the erection of a building for the Students' Christian Association. The Clapp Memorial Library Building at Belchertown, Mass., the gift of the late John Francis Clapp of Brooklyn, N. Y., was dedicated June 30. It cost $40,000.

The Yale-Harvard University race at New London, June 30, was won by the Yale crew. Time: Yale 22:56. Harvard 23:10½. Of the twelve eight-oared races between these colleges, each has now won six.

Among the noteworthy persons who died during the week were A. A. Talmage, General Manager of the Wabash Railroad system, June 28; Bion Bradbury of Portland, Me., who was appointed Collector of Customs at Eastport in 1844, and was reappointed by Presidents Polk and Pierce, and had been a Democratic candidate for Governor, and was Surveyor of the Port at Portland at the time of his death; at St. Johnsbury, Vt., July 2, Luke P. Poland, formerly Chief Justice of Vermont, and United States Senator; on July 3, at New Orleans, Duncan F. Kenner, who was a member of the Confederate Congress, and one of the Commissioners appointed by Jefferson Davis to visit England and France in the interest of the Confederate Government; on July 4, at Augusta, Me., Anson P. Morrill, who was the first Republican Governor of Maine, and was afterwards a member of Congress; at Philadelphia, June 29, William H. Ross, ex-Governor of Delaware.

FOREIGN.

On July 2 Queen Victoria reviewed 50,000 London volunteers in front of Buckingham Palace, and in the evening held her first garden party since the death of the Prince Consort.

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In the House of Commons, June 30, Mr. Smith moved that if the report on the Crimes Bill be not reached by July 4, closure be applied, and the motion was carried by a vote of 220 to 120. The Parnellites made no response to the Speaker's request for them to move the amendments of which they had given notice. Amendments introduced by Mr. Balfour, Chief Secretary for Ireland, among which was one for the omission of the change-of-venue clause, were agreed to without debate, and the bill was reported. Mr. Balfour announced that the third reading of the bill would be moved on July 5, but the date was subsequently changed to July 7. Every Parnellite left the House and every Gladstonian but two.

In the House of Lords, July 1, the Irish Land Bill passed its report stage; and on July 4 it was read the first time in the House of Commons, and the second reading was fixed for July 11.

The arrest of a young woman on a street in London, on the charge of improper conduct of which she was not guilty, became the occasion on July 5 of a "defeat" in the House of Commons of Mr. Matthews, the Home Secretary. The debate of the conduct of the police led to criticism of the Home Secretary. The vote was 158 to 148.

At a dinner on July 2 given by Sir Joseph Pease in honor of Mr. Gladstone, Mr. Gladstone made a long speech, which was chiefly a criticism of the recent speeches of Lord Hartington. He said that the Spalding victory showed the value of faith and patience in the present crisis. Lord Hartington had declared that the crisis was a serious and grave one, and in this opinion he (Mr. Gladstone) agreed with him. Parliament was not even allowed to discuss the question of home rule, but was confined to the consideration of the Coercion Bill. Ireland was stronger now on the home-rule question than ever. First, her constituencies under the Liberal Franchise Act had a voice; second, the elected members were able to speak their country's wishes; third, an ever-increasing, active force in England was in favor of home rule. This triple cord is unbreakable. "The crisis," Mr. Gladstone said, "is a double one. There is a crisis in Ireland, where, after giving her a large representation, we trample under foot the whole wishes and convictions of her people, as expressed by five-sixths of their members. The second crisis is the reduction of Parliament to paralysis and impotence. I predicted that unless the Irish question was settled, Parliament would find the greatest difficulty in performing its duty towards England and Scotland. That prediction has been more than verified. This inability of Parliament to have Ireland's wishes and wants discussed in a practical manner constitutes a crisis which will prevent the country from going asleep on the subject."

In the Parliamentary election to fill the vacancy in the Spaulding division of Lincolnshire on July 1, the Gladstonian candidate, Mr. Halley Stewart, defeated Mr. Tryon, the Conservative and Liberal Unionist candidate, by a vote of 5,110 to 4,363. This seat had been held by a Liberal Unionist, and it is the fourth that the Gladstonians have won this year.

More than a hundred English, Scotch, and Welsh members of the House of Commons have signed a memorial to the President and Congress of the United States in favor of referring all Anglo-American disputes to arbitration for settlement. It is expected that a deputation of members of the House of Commons will be sent to Washington to present the memorial to President Cleveland.

Lord Salisbury announced in the House of Lords July 5 that the Anglo-Turkish Convention with reference to the occupation of Egypt had not been ratified by Turkey, and that Sir Henry Drummond Wolff, the British Commissioner, had been instructed to leave Constantinople.

At a meeting of the Nationalist members of the Dublin Corporation July 4, Mr. Sexton was unanimously nominated for Lord Mayor.

An International Exhibition is to be held at Glasgow during the summer of 1888. A committee has been organized at Genoa to arrange for a celebration of the four hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America by Columbus. All the States of America, it is declared, will be invited to send representatives.

The Count of Paris arrived at St. Helier, on the Isle of Jersey, July 1, where he was met by a large crowd, many of whom welcomed him with cries of "Vive le Roi." Several large companies of Orleanists during the two or three days following visited the Count and made a demonstration, against which he is reported to have protested. The *Figaro* (Paris) on July 4 published the statement that the heir of a great kingdom (meaning Crown Prince Frederick William of Prussia) had visited the Count of Paris at Sheen House for the purpose of warning him that a Floquet-Boulanger Ministry would mean a war between France and Germany within a month after such a Ministry took office; and that the policy adopted by the monarchic party would be based on that warning.

A committee appointed to report a plan for the complete separation of Church and State in France have declared in favor of the Government's granting no more subsidies or special privileges to religious bodies, of repealing many of the existing laws and regulations, and of pensioning old ecclesiastics.

M. Bouvier, French Premier and Minister of Finance, has prepared the budget for presentation in the Chamber of Deputies. It will show a saving of 15,000,000 francs over the last budget.

The Budget Committee of the French Chamber of Deputies has postponed the mobilization of the French Army until next year, on the ground of economy.

The trial of Herr Klein and several associates for treason in supplying the French with information concerning German fortifications was begun at Leipsic July 4. Klein confessed that he had been paid by Schnaebelé, French agent at Pagny, for acting as a French spy, and that he had sent to the French War Office drawings of the fortresses of Strassburg and Mayence. French persecution of foreigners is again the subject of comment by the German press. No action has been taken in regard to the release of Koechlin, one of the convicted members of the French Patriotic League, and neither France nor Germany seems willing to take the initiative. The Mulhouse Correctional Tribune has sentenced a German domestic to nine months' imprisonment and a small fine for crying "Vive la France" in a tavern.

The German Military Council has decided upon a plan which will prevent the movements of troops becoming known to the public, and thus possibly to the enemy, in the event of mobilizing the army. The landing stages on strategic railways, which have hitherto been permanent structures, will be kept in the shape of materials, ready to be built at a day's notice.

A monument to King Louis I. of Bavaria, the gift of Bavarians in Alsace, has been unveiled at Strassburg, the King's birthplace. A stained-glass window has been inserted in the English church at Baden-Baden in memory of Prince Leopold of England by the Empress Augusta and Lady Malet, wife of the British Ambassador to Berlin, and others.

The *British Medical Journal* of June 29 said that Dr. Mackenzie had removed almost all of the fungus growth that remained in the throat of the German Crown Prince, but that since the last operation was performed he had caught a somewhat severe cold. This did not, however, alarm Dr. Mackenzie.

The meeting of the Sobranye has again made the Bulgarian throne a subject of speculation. Prince Ferdinand, whom it is thought all the European Powers except Russia would be willing to see occupy it, has declared his willingness to accept it if he shall be elected.

A new Russian coercive measure directs Government employees in Poland to forward frequently to St. Petersburg complete lists of resident foreigners. Jews are not allowed to remain in St. Petersburg more than a week, and are forbidden to enter corporations and academies. The efforts of Prince Hohenlohe, Count Henckel, and Herr Kramsta, the largest German landowners in the Russian provinces, to have themselves exempted from the effects of the Czar's ukase against foreign ownership of land have failed. They are therefore compelled to sell their estates in Russia at a sacrifice.

Commercial reports from Russia are that the recently increased duty on metals has had an adverse effect upon the iron trade. The furnaces are being extinguished in Upper Silesia, and iron and steel associations report that while superior pig-iron is in fair demand, the production of puddling iron far exceeds the demand, and prices have fallen.

The crop indications on July 1 were of a yield of wheat considerably below the average in all European countries except Russia and Austria-Hungary. There is promise of a good crop on an increased average in Algeria. In India the estimate is of a crop 6 per cent. less than last year.

Gen. Lawton, the new United States Minister to Austria, arrived at Vienna July 2. Mr. Straus, United States Minister to Turkey, presented his credentials to the Sultan July 1, and was warmly received.

The Italian Chamber of Deputies on June 30 granted a military credit of 20,000,000 lire for the garrison at Massowah. The Government regards the adoption of the credit as a vote of confidence in the Ministry, and does not think that anything justifies a fear of war in Europe.

It was reported from Rome on July 4 that orders had been sent to the Archbishop of New York to excommunicate the Rev. Dr. McGlynn and to publish the decree of excommunication in the journals. On July 5 the order had not been received by the Archbishop.

The Belgian Chamber of Deputies has adopted a bill declaring two-fifths of a workman's pay inalienable, and one-fifth free from liability to be taken even in legal process. Clerks' salaries are made free from liability to seizure unless they exceed $240 per annum.

The Indian Government will issue 4 per cent. bonds for a loan of £2,000,000.

The forthcoming marriage of the Emperor of China has been officially announced, and it is reported that the festivities will cost $5,000,000.

The Canadian Pacific Railway has offered to carry the English transpacific mail at a speed of fifteen knots, and to build their boats under Admiralty supervision, so that they may be readily converted into armed cruisers, for a subsidy of £100,000 per annum; and to carry it 3,500 miles across America free of charge. A German company has made a less advantageous bid.

Mr. Erastus Wiman of New York and Mr. Benjamin Butterworth of Ohio, and several men of prominence in the Province, made speeches at Dufferin Lake, Ont., July 1, in favor of commercial union with the United States. On the next day they spoke at Drayton, Ont.

The most violent earthquake that has occurred in Ecuador since 1858 was felt at Guayaquil on the morning of June 28. The shock lasted two minutes and twenty seconds, and the direction of the movement was from northeast to southwest. Clocks were stopped, ceilings were shaken down, and several buildings fell, but no life was lost.

The Emperor Dom Pedro of Brazil sailed for Europe on July 1.

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SHARP'S CONVICTION.

It was plain from a very early stage in Sharp's trial that nothing would save him except an explanation, from himself or his lawyers, of the disposition made of the $500,000, or thereabouts, which were raised over and above the cost of constructing the Broadway Railroad, and of which Sharp before the Senate Committee refused to give any account. No attempt was made by him, or by any one for him, to throw light on this part of the case. And yet he had only to go on the stand and say what he did with this money, or what he knew about it, in order to tear to pieces the whole web of probabilities which the prosecution had so ingeniously woven around him. No matter how improperly, or unworthily, or wastefully the money might have been used, if he could have shown that it was not used to bribe Aldermen, he would to-day be a free man. Failing this, it was useless for his counsel to ask the Judge to warn the jury that his non-appearance on the stand ought not to prejudice him, and it was useless for the Judge to comply. The law doubtless says it ought not to prejudice him, but it takes more than a week to get twelve middle-aged laymen into a legal frame of mind. They persist in judging people in court under the moral rules which they have all their lives used in dealing with their neighbors. Under those rules Sharp's silence fatally prejudiced him.

His conviction is most important for a variety of reasons, but for one above all. We do not think it uncharitable to say that he has probably done a score of times already, with perfect impunity, the thing for which he is to-day going to the State prison. It is not at all surprising that, with this experience, a man of his mental calibre should have come to the conclusion that it was not so very wrong to do it, if the object he had in view was a harmless or useful one. We have little doubt that the moral aspect of the Broadway transaction never really troubled him until the newspapers began to make a fuss over it. For he is not alone. He is one of a now large class of "operators" in railroads and kindred schemes, who have for the last forty years almost made a business of bribing legislators and other public officers—that is, getting what they wanted from people in power by paying for it cash down. Sharp has been at work in this way for fully thirty years. This class contains some of the richest, most pushing and energetic men in the community, engaged in all sorts of money-making enterprises, for the success of which official aid or official forbearance is absolutely necessary. To overcome obstacles of various kinds is the business of their lives, and they overcome them generally with money. If they have to make a railroad, for instance, they give money for the land, money for the equipment, money to excavate and fill up, money to buy off opposition, whether it be commercial, or legal, or legislative. They have consequently got into the way of looking at the removal of legislative hindrances for cash, just as they look at the removal of so many cubic yards of earth or rock, or the building of a bridge over a large river. It is an obstacle, and all obstacles wear the same moral aspect to them. The only difference between them is one of cost. Their theory is that the existence in official place of men who take bribes is not their affair, but the affair of those who elect them. It is not their business to see that none but good men get office, or that men in office stay good. Their business is simply to see that important and profitable public enterprises are duly carried out.

That the existence of this class of business men has had an immense influence in fostering corruption in the official class, there is no denying. That we shall have little success in purifying politics until bribe-giving, as well as bribe-taking, is made highly dangerous, is equally plain. The presence in the political field of men known to be willing to pay highly for things which public officers have it in their power to bestow, draws into office men who are ready to sell, just as certainly as a demand for mutton brings sheep to the market. Every year politics, under these conditions, becomes more and more the resort of the needy and broken-down, until finally, as in the case of the New York Aldermen, legislation comes to be looked on as a mercantile pursuit, with its good and bad years and its strokes of good and bad luck. There are in all the State legislatures to-day scores of men who go there simply to make money by taking bribes, and who would never think of going if they did not know that the lobby would be full of Sharps and their agents, ready to pay cash for their votes. Consequently, if we are to break up the market, we must strike some telling blows, like the one which has overtaken Sharp, at the men who keep it open and ask the country dealers to bring in their wares.

Unhappily, the influence of the Sharps does not end with the legislators. It has more or less reached the bar. The long success and impunity which they have enjoyed has finally given them in the eyes of lawyers the air and reputation of dealers, who, under the pressure of overwhelming necessity, now and then have to do things which are not nice, but who, nevertheless, can only fairly be criticised on the ground of having chosen a calling which fastidious men would consider disagreeable. The evidence given by Mr. Bright, the other day, in court, as to the kind of aid he gave Sharp in having his way with the Aldermen, described things which surely would not have been possible in the case of a lawyer of similar standing and similar sensitiveness about his good name, twenty-five years ago. We venture to assert that at that time a reputable lawyer concerned himself about his clients' ends, and refused to supply the means unless he was satisfied that they were such as a man of honor and a good citizen could approve of. The first great step in the downward course was taken when Field and Shearman began to contrive the legal machinery to enable Fisk and Gould to make their predatory attacks on railroads, in return for fees which amounted to a fortune. Before that time the lawyer's duty in standing by wrong-doers was confined to their defence after the wrong was committed. Since then, the doctrine that he may also assist in the preparations for its committal, has made rapid progress. If it be not checked, it will convert a great profession into the worst moral nuisance with which civilized society has had to contend for ages.

THE TEXAS CAMPAIGN.

That in midsummer of an "off-year" a campaign should be under way in Texas so exciting and so interesting as to challenge the attention of the whole country, would have been pronounced impossible a twelvemonth ago. That this campaign should be waged over the question of temperance, and that there should seem an even chance that it would end in the adoption of a prohibition amendment to the Constitution, only adds to the surprises of the situation.

For several years past, temperance sentiment has been growing rapidly in Texas. In 1885 the believers in prohibition succeeded in carrying through the House a measure proposing a constitutional amendment, but appeals to the traditional principles of the Democratic party against "sumptuary legislation" defeated it in the Senate. The advocates of prohibition only redoubled their efforts, and in the Democratic State Convention last year they carried a resolution declaring that the views of a citizen upon the question of local option should not interfere with his standing in the party, and that the question is "one on which every Democrat may indulge his own views without affecting his Democracy." The Convention did not, like the Democratic Convention in Tennessee, declare in favor of the submission of a prohibitory amendment, but when the Legislature met, with 131 of its 137 members Democrats, the demand for such action was made and readily complied with, the 4th of August being set as the day for the election.

The Prohibitionists had no sooner forced the Legislature to submit the amendment than they began operations to secure its adoption by the people, and so vigorous a fight did they make that its opponents soon found that they would have to do their best to beat them. For weeks past, the Prohibitionists and the Antis have been holding meetings in all parts of the State, and the number of these gatherings steadily increases as election day approaches. The meetings are of all sorts. Most frequently one party announces a number of speakers who will advocate its views; occasionally both sides unite in a joint debate and division of time: sometimes the speeches are worked in as incidents of a picnic or barbecue. This latter custom appears to be spreading of late, and a number of barbecues were held on the Fourth of July. At one of these gatherings last Saturday, besides the bountiful feast provided, a tournament was held in which twenty young men contested, and horse-racing, foot-racing, base-ball, and dancing were features of the programme.

A noteworthy incident of the campaign is the breaking down of the color line. Negroes constitute nearly one-quarter of the population of the State, and their votes will very likely decide the result. Consequently both parties are bidding their highest for the support of the blacks. Colored orators speak from the same platform with white, and whites attend meetings addressed exclusively by blacks, who are everywhere made to feel that the two races stand on an equality in deciding the sort of constitution under which both must live.

The breaking down of old party lines is

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hardly less noteworthy. Nobody ventures to say that a man is bound to oppose the amendment because he is a Democrat and Democrats have in the past denounced prohibition, when a Democratic United States Senator and several Democratic Representatives in Congress are upon the stump as advocates of the amendment. Gov. Ross and Congressman Mills are working zealously against prohibition, but a majority of the Democratic leaders favor the amendment. On the other hand, the last Republican candidate for Governor, other managers of the party, and its leading newspapers are outspoken against prohibition. Some of the Republican stump speakers and newspapers are disgracing themselves by trying to persuade the negroes that the movement to deprive them of the chance of getting drunk is only the first step towards robbing them of the liberty which they now enjoy.

The result of this extraordinary campaign cannot be forecast, since votes for President and State officers furnish no basis for estimates. Last year the Democrats cast 228,000 votes for Governor, the Republicans 65,000, and the Prohibitionists 19,000. If the Democratic strength is divided about equally, the decision will rest with the Republicans, who are chiefly negroes, and it is noticeable that the Antis count upon the bulk of the colored vote when they figure out a majority for their side. One consideration which upsets all calculations is the question whether, after all the talk, the amendment will call out a very full vote. A case has never been known in any State where a proposed change in the Constitution, submitted when no officers were to be elected, drew out a heavy vote, but perhaps Texas is to furnish an exception to the rule next month. The only certain thing now is, that each side is plainly afraid that it is to be beaten.

THE LEGEND OF FONTENOY.

THE Duc de Broglie, in the last number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, once more discusses Fontenoy, the most famous battle of the eighteenth century, after the great days of Marlborough, and by far the most picturesque. It was fought on the 11th of May, 1745, on the banks of the Scheldt, just outside the town of Tournay, which was then besieged by the French under Marshal Maurice de Saxe—a considerable soldier in his day, but doubtless far better known to most of our readers as the lover of Adrienne Lecouvreur than as a military man. It was the last great fight at which a King of the House of Bourbon was present. Louis XV. was on the ground, and nominally in command, and displayed a courage and cheerfulness which afterwards sometimes made people forget, for a few hours at least, the feeble sensuality which marked the greater part of his shabby existence. The Dauphin, too, who was never to reign, was there with his father, an ingenuous, fair-haired youth of sixteen, recently married, who had torn himself from the arms of his weeping mother and wife in order to join the army. Argenson, the Minister of Foreign Affairs, tells, in his correspondence with Voltaire, how, when the charge of the household troops swept past him, in the final stage of the fray, the lad drew his sword and tried to join in the rush, but was forcibly detained by his attendants. And he tells how gay Louis XV. was the night before the engagement, how merrily he chatted with his staff, and how he "sang a song with a great many couplets, which was very droll," and how, when he rode about reconnoitring the field, he kept chuckling over the fact that he was "the first King of France to look the English in the face since Poitiers, and he hoped things would go better this time"; how they wanted him to stay on the safe side of the river, so that he could escape easily in case of disaster, but he valorously insisted on crossing the bridge with the bulk of the army, and took his stand on a mamelon over which the balls occasionally whistled. It was, in fact, the last glorious day of the old French monarchy.

The fight was further remarkable as having brought to the notice of the Continent, even more signally than Blenheim, or Ramillies, or Oudenarde, or Malplaquet, which were won by a great military genius, the splendid qualities of the English infantry, the old courage and tenacity and firmness which three centuries before, as Latimer said, had "made all France afraid." The truly murderous character given to their fire by the coolness and steadiness of the men, even in the days of flintlocks, was remarkable at Fontenoy, as it was, sixty years later, in the Peninsular War, where Marshal Bugeaud spoke of it in terms of high admiration, although serving in the army which suffered from it.

But perhaps nothing has done as much to keep Fontenoy in mind as the fact that it was the one victory won by the French over the English in the eighteenth century, and that the Irish Brigade, then in the French service, has always claimed the honor of having restored the fortunes of the day when all seemed lost. That the French should have been ready to forget or ignore this, was natural enough, and it was just as natural that the Irish should have labored diligently, both in prose and verse, to keep them in remembrance of it. Voltaire, who was at that time historiographer of the French Court, barely mentions the Irish Brigade as having assisted in arresting the victorious march of the English column, while the Irish version is that Louis and his whole force were preparing for a vigorous flight across the river, when Marshal Saxe caught his bridle-rein and reminded him that "the Irish were still in reserve," and that then the King took heart and waited to see it out.

The Duc de Broglie endeavors to tell the story with as much fairness as possible. It was the Duc de Richelieu who brought to the King's headquarters the news that all was not lost; that on the extreme left the Irish Brigade had successfully attacked the column, and had by its example restored confidence to the Royal Vaisseaux regiment, which had been so maltreated in the previous part of the fray that only one of its officers was alive and unwounded. These two, he said, had for the moment stopped the English march, and he now advised that four pieces of artillery which had been stationed behind the King, to cover his retreat in case he had to run, should be brought to play on the column. The Irish claim that this suggestion, which exercised a great deal of influence on the final result, was a message from Count Lally-Tollendal, the commander of the Brigade. Richelieu said it was his own. The Duc de Broglie takes no notice of the Irish claim at all, but rejects Richelieu's, and seems at first disposed to give the credit of it to an obscure Captain Isnard of the Toulouse Regiment, but finally decides that the idea probably occurred to a great many at once, owing to the "vivacity of conception" which, he says, is a marked characteristic of "French crowds."

The state of things when the four guns were brought into play indeed seemed desperate. We cannot undertake a detailed description of the battle, which was in the highest degree spectacular, and which Carlyle, in his 'Frederick,' has made familiar to most readers. The English and Dutch, under the command of the young Duke of Cumberland, the second son of George II., were intent on raising the siege of Tournay, around which was lying a French army of 90,000 men, with 100 guns, on both banks of the Scheldt. The sole practicable approach to the place was across an oval-shaped plain about one mile and a half long and a mile wide, with the Scheldt River on one side and thick woods on the other. The woods and the surrounding eminences bristled with French batteries; but if they could be successfully passed, a ravine at the lower end gave access to open ground outside the town.

The Dutch contingent of Cumberland's command began the attack on the French position on the right, but were soon so badly mauled that they ran into shelter, which they did not leave during the remainder of the day. A Scotch brigade under Gen. Ingoldsby was to attack on the left, but never got into action, owing to the cowardice or incompetency of their commander, who, as somebody said at the time, "smelt too long at the physic to have any inclination to swallow it." He was afterwards tried by court-martial and cashiered. There was great glee at the French headquarters over these successes. "Softly, gentlemen," said Saxe. "We haven't had the English yet; you will find them harder to digest."

It now remained to try what could be done in the centre. The Duke of Cumberland formed a column of 15,000 English and Hanoverians, with twenty guns, and determined, in spite of the redoubts on his right and left, to force his way across the plain, and cut the French Army in two. It was a terrible undertaking, and the way it was carried out made one of the finest feats of arms in history. The close column marched steadily on without faltering, its flanks torn with a cross-fire of round shot, until it reached the wooded ravine, which Saxe, in his confidence that the enemy would never get so far, had neglected to fortify. It burst through this and emerged on the open ground on the other side, unconquered and apparently unconquerable, delivering a stream of fire from every side, and filling the whole French army with dismay, and literally splitting it open. "There was," wrote Argenson, the Minister of Foreign Affairs, "one dreadful

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hour, in which we expected nothing but a renewal of the affair at Dettingen; our Frenchmen being awed by the steadiness of the English and by their rolling fire, which is really infernal, and I confess to you is enough to stupefy the most unconcerned spectator. Then it was that we began to despair of our cause." The column, the ground being too rough for horses, dragged their guns by hand, six of them in the van. When they appeared outside the ravine, a portion of the Gardes Françaises stationed there charged them, thinking they had to deal only with a foolhardy handful, and were swept away by one murderous volley. The alarm being given, additional troops were hurried up, and formed across the path. It was at this awful moment that, according to the well-known story, the Duc de Biron and Comte de Chavannes on the French side, and Lord Albermarle, and Lord Charles Hay, the brother of the Marquis of Tweedale, on the side of the English, the lines being fifty yards apart, stepped forward and took off their hats to each other. "Fire, gentlemen," said Lord Charles. "No, gentlemen," answered Count d'Anterroche, a lieutenant in the Grenadiers of the Guard. "We never fire first; fire yourselves." The English took him at his word and delivered a withering volley, which swept away the Gardes Françaises like flies. Battalion after battalion came forward to share the same fate: the Gardes Suisses, four or five of the finest regiments of the line, the Gardes du Corps, the Gendarmerie, and the Carabiniers—all recoiled before the "infernal" English fire, smashed and dismayed. The story of the salute has been treated by many as an anecdote added to heighten the glories of a great day by the excited chroniclers of the time. It was, however, accepted in England as true, and a painting hanging in the billiard-room of the Tweedale mansion in Scotland to-day recalls the scene in which Lord Charles Hay bore so prominent a part. The Duc de Broglie confesses that he, too, had been inclined to discredit it until he found in the 'Reveries' of Marshal Saxe, a small volume of commentaries on the military art, a paragraph entirely devoted to arguing that "troops in the presence of the enemy should never fire first, inasmuch as the force which fires first is a defeated force if the enemy reserves his fire." From this he infers as very probable that the French at Fontenoy, in refusing to fire first, were obeying the instructions of their chief, and not merely indulging in a bit of somewhat grotesque politeness.

The rest of the story is soon told. The column, which of course had suffered severely in the onward movement, began to relax its force after its latest successes. It had no cavalry to follow them up. Its form made it difficult to manœuvre, and Cumberland was so astonished by his triumph that he did not know how to make use of it. There was consequently a pause in the advance, during which the French recovered somewhat from their panic, and began to think of better things than securing the King's flight. The four guns were brought to bear on the British mass, and made a breach in it at which the Irish Brigade, which alone had not given ground, led by Lally, made a successful dash, supported by a furious and concerted charge of all the French cavalry. The column was cut through in various places, and began to retire in separate bodies. But there was no rout, no hasty retreat. The whole force marched back, as it had come, formidable and defiant to the last, having left 9,000 killed and wounded on the field, besides 2,000 prisoners and 40 guns. "Although compelled to give way," says the Duc de Broglie, "the valorous English infantry showed neither in their faces nor in their attitude any sign of discouragement or dismay. 'The English column,' said the Minister of War, 'was like a rock that had to be mined. It took all the vivacity and all the bravery of our troops and the intrepidity of the General to blow it up.' The comparison was good to the end, for the explosion broke the rock up, not into dust, but into fragments, every fragment retaining its own hardness. The heroic battalion, compelled to retreat in small parties, left the field marching slowly, carrying their heads high, until they rejoined their own cavalry, and Saxe did not think it prudent to pursue them."

Fifty years from that day the French monarchy was ruined. The names of the proud noblesse who had charged so fiercely in the Maison du Roi, were only to be found in the proscription lists of the revolutionary tribunals. Within ten years the gallant Lally-Tollendal, after having almost won India for France, had been executed on trumped-up charges intended to cover up the corruption and frauds which had ruined his campaign, and his memory had become the eternal disgrace of the Old Régime.

THE TEACHING OF LATIN.

If Latin is not better taught, practically and theoretically, it will not be due to the lack of a thorough conviction on the part of some of our prominent teachers of Latin that the methods and the theories are all ready, and only need honest application. In a pamphlet on the 'Art of Reading Latin' (Boston: Ginn & Co.), Prof. Hale of Cornell University has made a vigorous attack on the old evil of dissecting the Latin sentence and rearranging its mangled members in the English order. Of course every teacher knows the mischief of this; every teacher knows that no one can be said to read Latin or Greek in any proper sense until he can read it in the order of the original. But, unfortunately, most teachers shirk the troublesome task of guiding the student into such a command of the language. Translation is so convenient a test of knowledge that the logical dissection of the sentence is actually encouraged, as the quickest way of getting at the common ground on which teacher and pupil meet.

All this, to be sure, is demonstrably wrong. An accusative at the head of a sentence is not the same thing as an accusative at the end of a sentence, and the translation that is the result of this mechanical transposition is dry and sapless. With a reasonable use of the oral method in the beginning, the wretchedness of this dislocating process may be entirely obviated, and sentences may be expanded from three words to a dozen or twenty, until the student can hold a long Latin or Greek sentence in the ear and on the brain from beginning to end. For private training, any number of simple mechanical devices may be suggested for the prevention of the tricks that the eye seems to play on the most resolute will; but, in any case, the words of the longest and most complicated sentence must be read and understood in the order of the original, or there is no real understanding at all. In fact, a firm hold on this elementary principle will carry the young student through difficulties that seem at first insurmountable; and even maturer scholars might profit by taking heed to their own steps, and by asking whether the more simple order in which they often present a tangled sentence is not a positive sin against the language they are teaching. Do we not find, in some of our best editions of the classics, explanations such as the whole analogy of Latin or Greek, as the case may be, shows to be impossible? A man who has been trained from boyhood to look for "subject," "predicate," and "modifier," will not stop to ask himself about the relative carrying power of the cases, and will construe genitive or dative with a distant word as readily as an accusative or a nominative.

It is therefore with great pleasure that we see an active and enthusiastic teacher like Prof. Hale going forth to do battle with this false habit of work; and those who have charge of elementary classes especially will do well to examine the plans by which he proposes to meet the real practical difficulties of the classroom. Still, it is well not to be too confident. Every teacher who feels the language must hate translation as an inadequate means of getting at his pupils' conception of the original; but it is too convenient and too ready a test to be laid aside entirely even in a higher stage of study, and it is often well to check the enjoyment of Latin or Greek as literature by exacting English equivalents, although the process of translation involves to a certain extent the dire dissolution of the original order.

Not content with this assault on the common sleepy ways of work in Latin, Prof. Hale has turned his attention to the simplification of Latin grammar, and has made an onslaught on the Sequence of Tenses in Latin—a set of rules that have been falling into more or less disrepute of late years. Indeed, it has been rather fashionable for some time to speak of the "so-called" sequence of tenses. Who started the depreciatory adjective, we do not know. We do know that Madvig long ago put the phrase *consecutio temporum* in a foot-note, and seemed rather ashamed of the whole business. It is a curious exhibit of the tendencies of our democratic age that revolutionists will not even let a leading clause dictate to a dependent clause what its tense must be; and the object of Prof. Hale's elaborate paper on the Sequence of Tenses in Latin, which has been reprinted from the *American Journal of Philology*, is to prove that every subjunctive stands on its own temporal bottom.

Neither thesis nor method can be called absolutely new, though, as so often happens, Prof. Hale did his own thinking before he found out that the inevitable German had been working on the same lines. In his zeal to establish his position, it seems to us that Prof. Hale, while doubtless doing much to make the dependent subjunctive more vital by a return to its original independent use, has borne too heavily on mere phraseology, has exaggerated the number of exceptions to the rule, and has overlooked the manifest indications of drift, to which that very imperfect vehicle of thought—language—is undoubtedly subject. But a full discussion of this matter would involve too many technical details and too much special illustration; and Prof. Hale's paper will doubtless provoke discussion enough at the hands of those to whom he addresses his protest, "the actual and potential makers of school grammars"—those most luckless of human beings, detested by schoolboys of every degree, and abused by teachers of every capacity.

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Correspondence.

A GARIBALDIAN IN DISTRESS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: An old friend and agent of Mazzini, one of the English Committee which sent 600 men to Garibaldi's aid in Sicily, could I read without interest the account in this week's *Nation* of the "First Pilgrimage to Caprera"? Yet, while reading it, there lay before me a letter dated this June 25, telling me of Garibaldi's Admiral, the Admiral of the Sicilian expedition, Garibaldi's and Mazzini's friend also, now here in America, crippled and penniless, and, so far as I can learn, not one of his old Italian friends or of Italy-loving foreigners to give him help.

May I ask your insertion of these few lines, perhaps to call forth some friendly inquiries which I shall be glad to privately answer?

Very faithfully, W. J. Linton.

P. O. Box 1139, New Haven, Conn., July 2, 1887.

Notes.

The Photo-Gravure Company of this city send us some charming specimen illustrations at once of their art and of a work in preparation by G. P. Putnam's Sons, 'The Land of Sleepy Hollow,' being a series of scenes about the home of Washington Irving, together with a reprint of his 'Legend of Sleepy Hollow' and 'Chronicle of Wolfert's Roost.' Our publishers have hardly begun to realize the resources which this process offers for the decoration of books, with very slight enhancement of the cost.

The Messrs. Putnam have further to announce 'Decisive Battles since Waterloo,' in continuation of Creasy, by Col. T. W. Knox; 'The Isles of the Princes; or, The Pleasures of Prinkipo,' Turkish experiences of S. S. Cox, late United States Minister to Turkey; a new 'Life of Washington,' by Edward Everett Hale; an illustrated edition of W. S. Mayo's 'Kaloolah: the Adventures of Jonathan Romer'; 'The Art of Conversation,' by Prof. John P. Mahaffy; and 'The Revolution in Tanner's Lane,' by Mark Rutherford.

'Industrial Instruction' is the title of a work by Robert Seidel of Mollis, Switzerland, translated by Margaret K. Smith, and now in the press of D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

The revival of Moore's 'Epicurean' in the Leisure Hour Series (Henry Holt & Co.) reminds one forcibly of the characteristics of that *excursus into the Orient which is so interesting* an episode of English literature at the opening of the century, and which left so strong a mark on Byron's works; but, as fiction, this story seems preternaturally unsophisticated to a modern reader, who cannot easily believe his ancestors such simple creatures as this romance implies they were. On the other hand, there is a distinction of style, a purity and breeding in the expression, which measures the decadence of our common books in literary form so clearly as to give us a very uncomfortable feeling.

Dr. Johnson's Memoir of Roger Ascham has been published in the "Chautauqua Library," with an introduction by James H. Carlisle, President of Wofford College, S. C.; and the same volume contains selections by the same editor from Stanley's Life of Arnold.

We have received Wright's 'Australia, India, China, and Japan Commercial Directory and Gazetteer' (New York: Gaylord Watson)—a portly volume whose several divisions are printed on paper of varying tints, making reference easy. The range is larger than the title, taking in something of England and America also, though here we are chiefly treated to advertisements. A folding map introduces each of the Australian sections, which furnish, indeed, the chief motive of this publication. The Directory is well equipped with general historical and statistical information and with indexes. Its commercial value is obvious.

The customary abstract of proceedings of the annual session of the American Philological Association has been published in the case of the meeting at Ithaca a year ago. Among the papers of a somewhat popular interest we remark Prof. Fisk P. Brewer's, on the word *election* as an Americanism, meaning 'voting at the polls, to ratify or reject a proposed measure.' He says its use in this sense does not antedate 1831, and he cites the mistake of a British Quarterly Reviewer who supposed a special election meant the choosing of a special legislature. Mr. Leo L. Grumbine's paper on Pennsylvania Dutch, and Prof. Charles F. Smith's on Southernisms, have much curious information, though a good deal of it is not fresh. Prof. March showed, by comparisons with Milton, Pope, Tennyson, and the Bible, that the number of once-used words in Shakspere is not extraordinary, so that "there is no need of help from Jonson, or Bacon, or Beaumont, or Camden, to accumulate them." Prof. W. I. Knapp discussed the location of Munda in ancient Spain, and made a very convincing argument in favor of the vicinity of "the still marshy and now malarious plain of Nabrissa, on the old highway from Seville to Medina Sidonia and Xeréz," as the scene of Cæsar's great battle, 45 B. C.

The June Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society contains the annual address on the Progress of Geography during the past year, by Gen. R. Strachey. Africa, as usual, occupies the chief place, with the account of the explorations of the French, German, and English in the Congo Basin, and Dr. Junker's adventurous journeys in the Monbuttu country. Mr. Carey's extraordinary feat in travelling unarmed and without an escort through a large part of Tibet was dwelt upon, as well as the activity of the "native explorers" on the northern frontier of India. The discovery of a great river in German New Guinea, navigable for more than three hundred miles from the sea, was also noted. In an interesting review of what has been accomplished in the last fifty years in exploration and discovery, Gen. Strachey referred to the work of the United States Government in surveying the Mississippi Valley and the Pacific Coast as having been carried out "with a degree of completeness, both in respect to its topographical representation and its physical characteristics, that has probably never been approached elsewhere." The remainder of the number is taken up with the usual notes, and a paper by Gen. J. T. Walker on the Lu River of Tibet. This, he contends, is the real source of the Irawadi, an hypothesis which, if true, will account for the great body of water in this latter river, which has led many authorities to regard it as the continuation of the Sanpo, now generally held to flow into the Brahmaputra. He gives an interesting sketch of the different attempts (strangely omitting that of the late T. T. Cooper, however) to penetrate the still unknown region lying between Assam, Tibet, and China, especially of the romantic journeys of the French missionary, the Abbé Krick, who perished in his last effort to preach the Gospel to the fierce tribes inhabiting the mountain slopes and valleys.

The first number of the *Ohio Archæological and Historical Quarterly* (Columbus: A. H. Smythe) has made its appearance in a neat form. Its most important article relates to the Ordinance of 1787, and the name of the writer, Wm. P. Cutler, recalls Dr. Manasseh Cutler, whose title to the fathering of this great political edict is once more asserted. The rest of the number is largely devoted to archæology, and in especial to mounds and other aboriginal earthworks.

We called attention at the time to certain reprints from the Dominion archives in the *Magazine of American History* for January, 1887, which put Ethan Allen in the light of a more or less sincere intriguer for the annexation of Vermont to Canada. Mr. Fernow, of the State Department at Albany, furnishes additional documents on this subject, including autograph letters of Ethan Allen and his brother Levi, to the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography* for July. It is very hard to reconcile them with genuine patriotism—indeed, Allen expresses himself as a member of an independent State, looking with distrust on the attempted re-confederation of the United Colonies. He tells Lord Dorchester explicitly that "matters were so contrived between the General [Haldermand] and certain men of influence in Vermont, that hostilities ceased between Great Britain and Vermont the last three years of the late war, which answered all the purposes of an allyance of neutrality and at the same time prevented the united States from taking any advantage of it." "The leading men of Vermont," he continues, "are not attached to a republican form of government" so far as to make it an obstacle to returning to British allegiance. He argues from the New England origin and ties of the inhabitants of Vermont the impossibility of coercion from that side—forgetting that this kinship would work as much against secession as against coercion.

There is a highly humorous British book on the 'Manners and Tone of Good Society, by a Member of the Aristocracy,' so very insular in its advice that it has never been reprinted by an American pirate, although it has gone through many editions in England. In its fourth edition now is a similar French work, the 'Manuel de la Bonne Société, par la Comtesse de Valresson' (Paris: Auguste Ghio; New York: F. W. Christern). It is amusing to note the way in which the French authoress holds up the English as exemplars of selfish bad manners, while the Americans figure in her pages only casually as rather too free and easy. American girls who wish to understand exactly how a well-bred French woman is taught to conduct herself in public, at a theatre, a concert, or a dinner, cannot do better than read this pleasantly written and unpretentious little manual. And students of society who may wish to see exactly how foreign to our ideas of marriage and of giving in marriage are the French, may read the chapter which Mme. la Comtesse de Valresson has devoted to this important subject. It is almost as instructive as the elaborate discussion of French ways of thought and feeling on this question to be found in Mr. Hamerton's 'Around My House.'

The first volume of M. Bengesco's edition of Voltaire's select works to appear in M. Jouaust's "Nouvelle Bibliothèque Classique" is the "Théâtre" (New York: Duprat), comprising "Œdipe," "Brutus," "Zaïre," and "Mérope." The next three volumes will be devoted to the *romans*.

Of late years the monologue has had a great vogue in Paris—a vogue now decreasing, as the monologue, from being a genuine play in one act, with one character only, has descended to a mere recitation, comic or poetic. "Le Monsieur en habit noir" of M. Abraham Dreyfus, for example, is a model of the true dramatic monologue; but most of the so-called monologues which have showered from the French theatrical publishers are empty of action and stupid to the verge of inanity. A most pleasant return to true principles is to be found in "Le Retour d'Arlequin," by M. Raoul de Najac (Paris: Hennuyer; New

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York: F. W. Christern), which is not only a monologue, but a pantomime also. It is a pantomime in one act, with only one character—*Arlequin*—but it is a genuine drama, with abundant action and with a clear and simple story. "Le Retour d'Arlequin" is now published with more than a dozen illustrations (by M. F. Lix), showing all *Arlequin's* successive moods and movements; and also with the full score of the light and tuneful music composed for it by M. André Martinet. It makes a very pretty book, and contains all that the amateur will need if he cares to venture on so novel a performance as a monologue in pantomime.

Several of the shorter stories which have appeared in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* since the beginning of the year have been issued recently in separate volumes, although, instead of running through three or four numbers of the *Revue*, they have appeared in only one or two. The latest of these are 'L'Inconnu,' the very original and striking contribution of M. Paul Hervieu to the numbers for May 1 and 15, and from that for February 15, 'Le Maître à danser' of M. Adrien Chabot (Paris: Calmann Lévy; Boston: Schoenhof), the most delicate and subdued of sketches, but quite perfect in its way, and in point of propriety unexceptionable. Both of these appeared in June. In May, Perrin issued in a volume the story with which M. Gilbert Augustin-Thierry made his very brilliant début in literature, 'Marfa' (Boston: Schoenhof). This appeared in the number for March 15 under the title of 'Le Palimpseste,' which is retained in the volume as a sub-title.

A collection of the scattered papers which Pierre Loti has contributed to various periodicals during the last three years has just appeared under the title of 'Propos d'Exil' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; Boston: Schoenhof). These are the impressions made upon the author's imagination by the various Oriental regions in which he found himself in the course of the recent war in the East, and in the voyages connected with his service there as the commanding officer of a French man-of-war. 'Propos d'Exil,' the very expressive title given to the volume, is also the title of one of the most characteristic of the earlier papers, which originally appeared in 1884 and 1885, while the author was still at the seat of war.

The third series of M. Ferdinand Brunetière's "Études critiques sur l'histoire de la littérature française" has just appeared (Paris: Hachette; Boston: Schoenhof). This collection should not be confounded with the other, by the same author, called "Histoire et Littérature," and published by Calmann Lévy, of which three volumes have also appeared. The two previous volumes of the "Études critiques" were published as long ago as 1880 and 1882. The present one contains papers on Descartes, Pascal, Le Sage, Marivaux, Prévost, Voltaire and Rousseau, and one entitled 'Classiques et Romantiques.' Three of the names in this list were the subjects of papers in the earlier volumes—Pascal and Voltaire in the first and Marivaux in the second. It will be interesting to compare these with the corresponding papers in the new volume, for the softening influence of time upon the severity and intolerance of M. Brunetière's judgments has been great.

In reviewing the meteorological conditions at the time of the eruption of Mount Tarawera, New Zealand, it is surprising to find that the eruption caused no great atmospheric disturbances except in its immediate neighborhood, and there was no evidence at all of any indrawing currents. In the Government Sanatorium at Rotorua, the self-registering barometer recorded a nearly uniform pressure throughout all the principal part of the eruption, after which the glass began to rise by a small amount. The curve was elsewhere smooth, and even shows only a small number of oscillations which trebled its thickness and are attributed to earthquakes; but whatever may have been their cause, they certainly mark the outburst of Rotomahana and the crisis of the eruption. The violently disturbed area of the openings being small, the equilibrium was restored at very short distances around, and for this reason the volcanic eruption had none of the effects of a cyclone. Other meteorological conditions examined by Mr. Hutton exhibit nothing out of the ordinary course of events. The eruption was, however, as usual, the cause of much electrical disturbance, but this did not affect the weather.

Prof. Mallet, late of the University of Virginia, has detected the presence of silver, a material hitherto unknown among volcanic products, in the ashes ejected from Cotopaxi during the eruption of July, 1885. The dust was collected on the Pacific Coast about one hundred and twenty miles west of the volcano, at which point it fell to the depth of several inches. Prof. Mallet found a proportion of about two-fifths of an ounce troy of silver per ton of ash—a proportion which, while apparently insignificant, represents a large quantity of silver in the total bulk, as the amount of the ejected ash was very great.

A curious physical novelty results from the new optical glass in the shape of lenses which magnify and yet have perfectly plane surfaces on both sides. The refracting index of the glass is made to decrease in a regular manner from the surface inwards, by means of processes employed by Schott and Co. of Jena, the manufacturers of Prof. Abbe's new optical glass.

We learn that the project of holding a Summer School of Physics at Harvard College this season has been abandoned; but on July 19th and 20th apparatus designed for use in the "forty experiment course," preparatory for admission to Harvard College, will be shown to teachers or others at the Jefferson Physical Laboratory, Cambridge, Mass., and questions relating to the experiments will be answered. The same thing will be done for the "sixty-experiment course" on the second day, July 20.

—Whether Harvard may be called a rich man's college, and whether a man of moderate means need be put to shame on going there, were questions considered by Prof. Geo. H. Palmer in a speech at the late Harvard commencement. Inquiries made by him of the graduating class, and very generally answered, show that the annual expenses of about one-fourth were from $400 to $650; of another fourth, from $650 to $975; of another, $975 to $1,200 (as we infer, though the item is omitted); of another, upward of $1,200. The lowest sum reported was $400; the highest, $4,000. If we compare these figures with the official estimate of the cost of living in the last catalogue, we shall find that one-half the students expend more money than is deemed necessary ($1,000) "to cover all ordinary comforts." Prof. Palmer's inquiry excluded, as was proper, the expenses of Class Day; but we apprehend that this is the occasion *par excellence* on which lavish expenditure and social distinctions put the poor man "to shame." The line is also drawn, we will add, at Harvard, as elsewhere, by secret societies whose membership is determined above all by social and pecuniary considerations. Prof. Palmer points out that the plain living and high thinking go together, as a rule; but scholarship and free spending are far from being incompatible. The College, in its commons system, has done what it could to make wholesome food as cheap as possible, and (regarding the splendid hall in which it is eaten) as enjoyable. Its high rents and tuition still handicap the poor student, being indispensable to the revenue on which the College machinery depends. On the other hand, an extraordinary sum is dispensed to the deserving in the shape of scholarships.

—The practical outcome of his inquiry was condensed by Prof. Palmer in the following two pieces of advice:

"First, to the parents. Give your son an allowance when you send him to Harvard, and oblige him to stick to it. If you pour $2,000 into his pockets, $2,000 will come out. We cannot remove $1,000 from your son's pocket, and say to him, what would be perfectly true, 'You are better off with the remaining $1,000 than you would be with the $2,000.' It is you, the parents, who must perform this operation. If you ask me, then, what will be a suitable allowance, I can state it to you in several classes. If your son is something like an artist in economy, he may live here under $600 a year. If he is able to live closely, carefully, and yet with due regard to all that he requires, he may easily accomplish it on between $600 and $800. If you wish him to live here at ease, from $800 to $1,000 may be well expended. I should be very confident that every dollar given him over $1,200 was a dollar of danger.

"My second advice is to you graduates. Should you meet a poor boy, do not rashly advise him to come to Harvard College. If he is a good boy, docile, worthy—and commonplace—advise him to go somewhere else. But if you encounter a poor boy of eager, aggressive mind, who loves knowledge, who is capable of feeling the enjoyment of struggling with a multitude and making his merits known, let him understand that Harvard is expressly constituted for such as he."

—The 'Monumenta Germaniæ Pedagogica,' edited by Karl Kehrbach and published by A. Hofmann & Co., Berlin, promises to be the most extensive pedagogical publication ever undertaken by private enterprise, unless the well-known Encyclopedia of Schmidt be an exception. The series is to comprise nothing less than all the chief literary products, not already commonly accessible, in the history of education in Germany during the entire middle ages. The plan has been years in maturing, and the names of several scores of scholars who are to coöperate are given. Representative text-books in all the leading branches, from primer to university logic; laws and orders, civil and religious; theoretical treatises; and a rich school miscellany—all without distinction of party or religious confession—are promised. The editor seeks to show what men of all stations, who received any kind of training, really had in the way of culture and education, and they broadly intimate that the future historian of this period must wait for their texts. Among the more interesting will doubtless be the volumes promised on mediæval rhetoric, the laws and customs concerning the education of princes, the school regulations of the Moravians, geographical instruction in the sixteenth century, school comedies of the Jesuits, the history of military education, and copious illustrations of school legislation. The first volume contains over 600 large pages on the school orders of Brunswick, with a long introduction on the development of the school system of that State from the eleventh century, of 200 pages. The edicts are printed in the original typography, and extend from 1251 to 1828, and critical remarks and explanations, and an index of obsolete terms, are printed in an appendix. The edicts themselves cover the entire constitution of school organization and administration, and are full of curious points of interest even to the general reader. A second volume has also appeared, containing the famous *Ratio Studiorum* and *Institutiones Scholasticæ Societatis Jesu*, with a portrait of Loyola and other eminent leaders of the order. An Introduction gives an extended list of printed and manuscript authorities.

—The French censorship under the First Empire and under the Restoration, or, officially and euphemistically, "La Direction générale de l'imprimerie et de la librairie (1810–1815)," is the theme of the sole leading article in *Le Livre* for

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June. The writer, M. Henri Welschinger, chooses for his epigraph Napoleon's own words to the Council of State in 1809, "A body of censors will always be afraid of not doing enough, and will therefore always overdo." This learned article abundantly proves the truth of the proposition, which did not, however, deter the Emperor from making the experiment. M. Welschinger brings to light for the first time a great number of illustrations of the servility of the censors, some of whom, reëmployed under the Restoration, showed a disgusting disloyalty to Bonapartism. But the most curious and laughable exhibition is of the literary criticism which they attempted, in the hope of recommending themselves to their superiors. Anything more flat and fatuous could hardly be conceived. Of keenness of scent, the most shining and ridiculous instance occurred in the case of the 'Dictionnaire universel de la langue française et Manuel d'orthographie et de néologie.' Here the zealous censor lighted upon

"SPOLIATEUR, s. m. *Spoliator*, qui dépouille, qui vole.—Spoliatrice, s. f.—*Buonaparte.*"

He at once clapped an injunction on the work, conceiving that the Emperor was named as an *example* of a spoliator. The unfortunate publisher explained that the word *spoliatrice* was a neologism used by Bonaparte, and therefore ascribed to him, as had happened elsewhere in the same dictionary. The injunction was removed. Another of these miserable agents of obscurantism commented a translation of Dante with the remark that this poet's genius "tient de la nature des météores"! M. Welschinger has no reproaches to make of that function of the censorship which consisted in the suppression of obscene publications. He wishes it were more actively employed at the present day. "Our literature," he says, "once the honor and the admiration of France and of the world, is sullied by such infamous productions that, despite our innate aversion for all preventive censorship, we almost would applaud an institution or police regulations capable of arresting the output of noxious works whose very titles excite disgust. That would not be censorship, but a useful scavenger operation."

—The Cirque Molier is one of the famous institutions of Paris, although it is private and extremely exclusive. A certain M. Molier has converted the great court of his hôtel into a picturesque ring, surrounded by loggias, which replace the rows of seats in an ordinary circus. Here, on great occasions, he invites his friends to witness performances which rival those of professionals, though the bearers of some of the most aristocratic names of France are among the performers—the Comte de la Rochefoucauld ranking especially high as an acrobat, and M. Molier himself as a rider in the ring. It was here that M. Robert de Bonnières placed some of the most effective scenes and the dramatic climax of his story of 'Les Monach.' In the early part of June one of the private performances by the frequenters of this elegant place of amusement and exercise took place, and a very original and picturesque part of the programme was a series of combats, representing, in the costume of the periods, the principal epochs in the history of fencing. These began with a combat of the time of Louis XII., with two-handed swords; then the duel of the Italian school under Henri II., with sword and buckler; the *assaut des mignons* of Henri III., with rapier and poignard; the *assaut de Saint-Georges* and that of the Chevalier d'Éon; and, finally, the modern *assaut d'escrime*. The realistic interest in the last of these may have been the greatest for an audience in which any man might be called upon to-morrow to take part in a similar combat; but to a reader at this distance it would seem as if there must be a certain æsthetic pleasure and interest quite as great in witnessing a duel according to the rules laid down by the great authorities of the time of the French wars in Italy, for instance, or of the period of the Ligue, or even of that of the Regency.

—In awarding to Dr. Backlund of Pulkova the Lalande prize of the French Academy, for his researches on the orbit of Encke's comet, the Committee were inclined to consider the result of the investigation of the first importance. The comet will be recalled as an unusually erratic member of the solar system, first discovered about 100 years ago, and shown by Encke early in the present century to have an accelerated motion in its orbit unaccountable on the Newtonian theory of gravitation. This gave rise to his celebrated hypothesis of a resisting medium in space, through the action of which the sun's attracting force was supposed to draw the comet into a smaller and smaller orbit with each revolution. Dr. von Asten of Pulkova, in continuing the researches of Encke, was led, through an unfortunate error in his formulæ, to the anomalous conclusion that between the years 1865 and 1871 this apparent acceleration had vanished. The discovery of this error is due to the work of Dr. Backlund, who finds, however, that the progressive acceleration is becoming less and less pronounced, having been reduced in the last fifteen years to about half the amount from 1820 to 1865—a result which renders the discovery of the cause of the acceleration even more difficult than before. In the course of his researches on the motion of the comet during its apparitions from 1871 to 1886, Dr. Backlund found that it approached Mercury so closely in 1878 as to afford the data for a new determination of that planet's mass from the perturbations it caused in the motion of the comet. Even supposing the acceleration of the comet's mean motion to have been constant during the last fifteen years, it is impossible to represent satisfactorily the observations made in that period if the mass of Mercury be supposed to be greater than 1-5,000,000th that of the sun, while the value of the mass of Mercury concluded from Dr. Backlund's work is the 1-2,668,700th part, and is noteworthy as being the largest value of this planet's mass hitherto determined.

—In connection with this subject we may note the recent paper of Mr. Monck on the retardation of Encke's comet, in which its slower motion is accounted for by its passing through systems of meteors, rather than by the generally accepted theory of a resisting gaseous medium. Whatever meteors existed, the path of the comet in motion among them must be retarded by their influence, because a large majority will be coming from an opposite direction. While in the case of a solid body like the earth the shock of collision would be inappreciable, the impact would, with a light body like Encke's comet, seriously retard its motion. Collisions with meteors would also be more frequent nearer the sun, certainly up to the distance at which Encke's comet approached it. Astronomers have inferred the existence of a large mass of meteors inside the orbit of Mercury as the only way of accounting for well-known irregularities in the motion of that planet; and, as the comet and the meteors also would then be near their peribelion, their consequent increased velocity would make the retarding effect greater.

A MISSIONARY ROMANCE.

The Story of Metlakahtla. By Henry S. Wellcome. Saxon & Co. 1887. Pp. x, 483, 8vo, illustrated.

IN 1856 Fort Simpson, situated in British Columbia within a few miles of the southern boundary of Alaska, was the trade centre maintained by the Hudson Bay Company for nine tribes or clans of the Tsimshian Indians. This people were known, from the first explorations of the coast, as turbulent, bloody, given to merciless war on neighboring tribes or weak bands of whites, and plunged in the depths of gloomy superstition. In war they enslaved the women and children made captive, and beheaded the men. The heads were preserved as trophies, and it is on record that the heads of three murdered white men belonging to a vessel of the United States were objects of barter with a neighboring tribe during the first years of this century. Their religious practices were in many respects most revolting—one order or sept among them, during certain dances, running amuck among the spectators, tearing a living dog to pieces with their teeth, and even going so far as to indulge in cannibalism: the object of their fury being sometimes a corpse, and at other times a living slave or an unfortunate spectator.

The horrors of their barbarism were shown in strong relief by the fact that they were above the ordinary level in intelligence—their language, in great part soft and flowing, lending itself readily to eloquence; and in their peculiar arts of carving wood, stone, and metal, these people attained a remarkable degree of proficiency and good taste. But it was necessary that a strong guard should be kept: regular sentinels were set at night and during the day; cannon were mounted in stout bastions; and only a few individuals were admitted to the fort at one time, when trading. To this day the bullet-marks on the heavy cedar logs are shown to visitors, where they have remained the silent witnesses of attacks on the fort or of mutual warfare among the bands assembled for trade.

Capt. Prevost, R. N., on his return from the North Pacific Station, excited great interest in England by his accounts of the state of barbarism existing there. About 1857 William Duncan, a lay reader of the Church of England, animated with the true missionary spirit, sacrificed a prosperous business to devote himself to missionary labor in this forbidding field. He went out under the auspices of the Church Missionary Society, from whom he received personal support to the amount of five hundred dollars a year; and, after a voyage round the Horn and many warnings of the certain failure supposed to await him, was taken to Fort Simpson. Here he was introduced, shortly after his arrival, to the habits of his future pupils, by a horrible scene of cannibalism, debauchery, and murder which took place outside the bastion from which he witnessed it, and which was subsequently prolonged for several days.

It is probable that Mr. Duncan's commercial experience had endowed him with more practical good sense than is possessed by many missionaries to the heathen; at all events, he began by studying the language, so as to dispense with the profane trade jargon which was the sole means of communication in those days and totally unfit for mission use, and by getting hold of the children and opening a school. After many dangers and tribulations, he secured a certain number of converts or adherents, and became convinced that to obtain permanent and genuine results he must get away from the whiskey and debauchery of the vicinity of the fort, evils constantly augmented by the coming and going of strange natives from different parts of the coast. It is characteristic of his methods that one of the first things he succeeded in doing at Fort Simpson was to get the price of soap reduced. Later, he taught his people to make it.

Determining, as we have said, to remove from the evil influences about him, he selected for his purpose a place called Metlakahtla, about twenty miles from Fort Simpson, and the site

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of an ancient Tsimshian village. After a year of preparation he embarked, with fifty followers of all ages, in six canoes, and with the logs of their school-house rafted for transportation to their new home. A week after, thirty more canoes followed, with two chiefs, raising the whole number of people to about 350. Having settled, he went about his Master's business with such good, hard, common sense, as well as tact, as makes one groan for the very rarity of it, especially among those, in such places as missions, where it is needed most. He instituted a town meeting, taxes, a common council, and established public works—that is to say, drains, roads, landing places, a house for strangers, wells, a public playground. He abolished slavery and harbored fugitives, often at great risk from the man-stealers. Liquor was prohibited, smashed if landed. He vaccinated his people and all comers. He introduced a cooperative store, and thus incurred the hostility of the traders. He built, with his people, a schooner, which fetched their goods, as the traders would not carry them. She paid good dividends, and the astonished Indians named her the *Slave*. A sort of savings-bank was instituted, most of the currency being in the shape of blankets. A sawmill was imported, town lots laid out, good houses built for the community, a fine church and school-house erected—solely with the labor of the people. In short, by giving them practical illustration of the facts that cleanliness, industry, handicraft, knowledge, order, *paid*, he conquered the utilitarian Indian completely, and the way was open for the Gospel, which came to them with a force and power unattainable by any other road. The transfer was made in 1862. In 1866 the Metlakahtlans posted about 200 letters each trip of their schooner.

The success, spiritual as well as temporal, of this undertaking was phenomenal. It was universally attested by bishops, laymen, chance visitors, even hostile traders. It was the only genuine mission success on the coast for many years. Others worthy of praise, since instituted, have profited by Metlakahtla methods. All this time Mr. Duncan remained a layman, preferring to work untrammelled for many reasons. He gave, of his own means and by subscriptions from personal friends and admirers, many times the support accorded him by the Society. His secular fund amounted to nearly $40,000. There was nothing sectarian in his teaching. Morals and practical Christianity, as of the Apostles, were inculcated. The sacrament was not administered. It was difficult to explain to fresh converts from a religious cannibalism the theory of the Eucharist without causing confusion in their minds. The bare taste of wine might awake to fury the half-subdued devil of drink in some poor fellow. Suffice it to say that the executive of the Missionary Society and Reverend Bishops alike, when the case was laid before them, approved the modified congregational teaching of Mr. Duncan, and were satisfied with making their Indian fellow-creatures clean, moral, healthy, sober, loving one another and their church, prosperous and happy unsectarian Christians.

After some twenty years' service Mr. Duncan left his charge, and a clergyman was installed whose indiscretions threatened to ruin everything. The founder of Metlakahtla was recalled to save his life-work from an outbreak of misplaced religious emotion. He came, and all was calm. Later, a serpent entered this Eden. Sectarian counsels began to rule the Church Missionary Society. The creed and articles of religion had not been sufficiently insisted on, so they said. A Bishop of New Caledonia was appointed, having three clergymen and two laymen in his diocese. He was a bigot, a sectary, and began at once to stir up dissensions. A conference of the missionaries was held, from which the Bishop absented himself. Mr. Duncan was advised by this conference, to whom he submitted the facts of the situation, (1) not to resign his charge, and (2) to continue as a semi-independent lay mission, practically taking care of itself.

The doings of this Bishop we cannot chronicle: for them the reader is referred to the book. The facts are well attested and are there. No honest man, whatever his creed, can read them without a stirring of the blood, if not a clenching of the fist. In effect, failing to win the Metlakahtlans away from their trusted teacher by persuasion, fraud, or force, he has endeavored to deprive them of all that they have accumulated, and even of the very logs which they had hewn to build their dwellings, the land which belonged to their forefathers, which no other had ever occupied, and which their labor had made to blossom as the rose. A servile provincial government seems to have lent its power in defiance of law or justice to further the ends of My Lord Bishop.

Mr. Duncan has visited the United States recently, hoping to obtain a concession of wild land in Alaska, near the southern boundary, where his tormented flock may gather and remain in peace. That this may be brought about promptly and efficaciously, is the hope of all who know the circumstances.

The book derives dignity from its subject. It is a little provoking in the want of clearness, especially as to the arrangement of events and the insertion of dates, which are only to be found with difficulty; even the year of Duncan's arrival at Fort Simpson has to be inferred from other statements in the appendix. The righteous indignation of the writer occasionally injures his style or weakens the force of the facts, better simply stated. The printing and binding are good; but there is no index.

MICHIGAN.

Memorials of a Half-Century. By Bela Hubbard. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

THE word Michigan ought to appear in this title. Michigan is the subject of Mr. Hubbard's story, as *Cassius* said honor was his—Michigan first, last, midst, and without end. The author has been a wide wanderer and harvester in all the continents, but this book garners only his Michigan gleanings. Nor is there a better book about Michigan. Indeed, there is no other which covers the same, or so diversified, ground.

The chapter on the Beaver is the shortest, but whoever reads these seven pages will get such a taste of Mr. Hubbard's quality as will give him an appetite for the other five hundred. The early French in Michigan had Catholic hearts, but their stomachs were Protestant. One result was that the beaver, thanks to his tail, was pronounced a fish by the medical faculty of Paris, and in consequence the faculty of theology there decided that it might be eaten on fast-days. Thus far Charlevoix is quoted by Mr. Hubbard with a keen sense of the admirable evasion. He ought to have added the next sentence, where Charlevoix says (i, p. 97), "M. Lemery thought this decision related only to the beaver's tail. The truth is, that it allowed the whole animal to be eaten just as freely as mackerel (*Il a été mis tout entier au même rang que la maquereuse*)." The hunters who kept their fast on beaver repeated the history of those Scotch fishermen who, having reported that they had picked barnacle-geese from trees, were permitted by their priests to comfort their hearts on meagre days with those constructive vegetables. The Dutch brag that they created Holland: *Tellurem fecere Dii, sua litora Belgae.* Mr. Hubbard says the beaver made a large part of Michigan, and proves it, too. The papers on fishing, the birds of the author's neighborhood, four-footed inhabitants, and wild beasts, abound in stories, well substantiated, which to most readers will be revelations, and will make many a Michigan boy wish he had been born half a century earlier. The more we see of men the more we must love such dogs as we here read of. Their tongues, which were the best of plate-cleaners for Gen. Sherman in California, had long before been equally serviceable to Mr. Hubbard on the upper Lakes.

The author explored Lake Superior in 1840. Few that pioneered there so long ago survive. Who of those few has written out his impressions at large? We know not where else to find such accounts as fill Mr. Hubbard's pages of the Pictured Rocks and the Grand Sable. Decades hence his romance of travel will be extracted into guide-books for tourists who will then throng our "unsalted sea." His book is a pair of those spectacles through which our eyes see nature better than they ever could if unassisted. "Seeing many things, thou observest not," is a more truthful description of men to-day than when Isaiah coined the phrase. Mr. Hubbard's senses have been exercised to discern. Who of us has heard by night, as he did, the crackling sound of growing corn? In reading his discriminations of color we accuse ourselves of color-blindness. Culture had added a precious seeing to his eye, and then he betook himself to the best fields for observing, as Macready resorted to a madhouse when he would learn to act *Lear*. His observations have ranged through the largest State save one east of the Mississippi. They run back a year before it became a State, an era that has passed away without begetting a son in its own likeness. Travelling in canoes, on foot, or in wagons slower than footmen, he mastered topographical knowledge that is beyond the dreams of modern wayfarers. It was his to see the forest primeval, the Indian, pre-Indian monuments, trappers, voyageurs, French habitants, quadrupeds, and birds that have ceased to be seen. He was of the party whose explorations in 1837 opened the eyes of Michigan to her wondrous wealth of salt, copper, and iron, in virtue of which, though surpassed in age by twenty-five States, she outranks them all but eight in population. Mr. Hubbard's range of observation is wide: For fifty years he has risen early to inspect his thermometer with as much zest as the hungry Jew gathered morning manna. But all nature is beauty to his eye, music to his ear, and an infinite book of secrecy which he is never weary of searching. His notings bring to mind Thoreau, and White's 'Natural History of Selborne.'

The last third of these Memorials is consecrated, as the French say, to climatology. It was wise to place this topic last. Such a long talk about weather few would listen to, had not the foregoing chapters served as what rhetoricians call an introduction inquisitive to this, leading readers to ask, "What next?" But when thus beguiled into dwelling on its details, we confess it a latter end better than the beginning, like the proverbial postscript of a lady's letter. Here the book shows an originality in observation and deduction which is the hiding of its power, and demonstrates of what interest and value the labors of a single observer may prove. The influences of the Lakes, the largest collective fresh-water area on the globe, we cannot remember to have seen treated so fully and so ably. Mr. Hubbard gives a long array of statistics and diagrams, largely based on his own observations, which lead him to conclude that when sun-spots abound, a low temperature soon follows, next comes a maximum rainfall, and then lake-waters rise to their highest point; these phenomena recurring in cycles each of about a dozen years.

Mr. Hubbard's account of pre-historic mounds

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is the more worth reading because he has, like Schliemann, excavated in person. Perforated skulls, prognathous jaws, flattened tibias, as well as proofs of cremation, he has himself unearthed. In regard to ancient garden-beds, he holds "that they are confined to Michigan, except a few in Wisconsin on the western shore of Lake Michigan" (p. 244). But this conflicts with the statement of Canfield, in his 'Sauk Co. Sketches' (p. 16, 1861), that "for several miles every way from Babb's prairie [which is more than a hundred miles west of Lake Michigan] you find large fields of from ten to a hundred acres of garden-bed mounds." To Mr. Hubbard, however, belongs the credit of first showing by eight woodcuts the nature of these beds.

Regarding Champlain, certain trivial errors ought not to be left unnoticed. Mr. Hubbard says, "Champlain had in 1611 and 1612 [1613 and 1614] ascended the Ottawa as far as Lake Huron, and returned by way of the Straits [Detroit] and Lake Erie." The fact is, that Champlain never reached Lake Huron till the summer of 1615, and did not return at all by the Straits, but, says Parkman, "Champlain turned homeward [from his only journey as far west as Lake Huron] following that long circuit of Huron and the Ottawa which Iroquois hostility made the only practicable route" ('Pioneers,' p. 384). This route east, though circuitous, was really far less so than the journey via Detroit would have been. Mr. Hubbard says the Mississippi "was explored by Marquette, accompanied by Joliet" (p. 158). This mode of speaking perpetuates a popular error. The names Joliet and Marquette should change places. Joliet was the principal, and would have made the expedition if Marquette had never existed. Thus Parkman says (p. 47), "Talon looked about him for a fit agent to find the Mississippi, and made choice of Joliet." Marquette's own words are: "Je m'embarquay avec le Sieur Joliet, qui esté choisi pour conduire cette enterprise." Marquette's name would never have stood before Joliet's had not Joliet's papers been lost. Marquette's relation to Joliet was similar to that of Hennepin to La Salle, or that of a regimental chaplain to its colonel.

Treating of the saint who was the first female founder of an anti-property society, and whose name was given to the lake between Erie and Huron, Mr. Hubbard quotes "Way's" (Wey's) work on Rome as saying: "Santa Clara has her tomb in the [Santa Maria sopra] Minerva, and she dwelt between the Pantheon and the Thermæ of Agrippa. The tenement she occupied at the time of her decease still exists, but is little known. In a little triangular place on or near Via Tor Argentina lodged the first convent of Clarisses [Claresess ?]. If, crossing the gate-way, you turn to the left, you will face two windows of a ground floor. . . . It was there that the first abbess of the Clarisses died," etc., etc. (p. 165). Wey will be understood to mean that Santa Clara lies buried in the Roman church above mentioned, and probably he himself so thought. The truth is that she is not in Rome at all, but in Assisi, where Mr. Hubbard may himself have seen her. Hare ('Northern Italy,' iii, 381), describing the Santa Chiara Church at Assisi, says: "Steps in front of the altar lead to a crypt where we see the body of St. Clare, clad in the habit which she wore when living." No tomb of hers in the Minerva is noted in Baedeker or Gsell-fels. The monument of Catharine of Siena in that edifice seems to have been mistaken by Wey for one of Santa Chiara—perhaps because the names of both have the same significance. He resembled Jacob, who thought his bride was Rachel, but in the morning behold, it was Leah! It is unlikely that the remains of St. Clare ever rested at all in the Minerva, partly because the first stone of that church was not laid till long after her death, and partly because, according to Gsell-fels, as well as Butler's 'Lives of the Saints,' she died, not at Rome, but at Assisi. Mr. Hubbard, who takes pains to correct the spelling of Lake St. Claire, would be sorry to propagate an error regarding the local habitation of its tutelar saint, and we are therefore more careful to rectify a false impression, which his book must stamp.

Mr. Hubbard wields a facile pen, and his pages show not only classical culture, but acquaintance with modern standard poets. Occasional lapses of memory are, however, noticeable. His motto, *Serit arbores quæ alteri seculo prosint*, which he attributes to Cicero, according to Cicero himself belongs to Statius ('De Senectute,' viii, 25). He says to the *manor* born, unmindful of "Hamlet" (I, iv, 15). He uses steppes as a synonym of inclines. Such misspellings as Nemerosa, etc., may be credited to proof-readers. "Poor Claires" is an outcast from both French and English. Claires is no more English than poor is French. The cuts to illustrate the shapes or skeletons of trees are instructive, but we have never seen a black walnut of such an outline as appears on page 401.

These memorials are printed on such excellent paper that they are heavy to the hand, yet they are by no means heavy reading. In and out of Michigan we predict for them an appreciative reading public. The author will enjoy making such memorials as long as he lives; indeed, the making of them will help him to live longer. Similar will be the influences of his writings upon their readers.

COMBA'S WALDENSES.

Histoire des Vaudois d'Italie depuis leurs origines jusqu'à nos jours. Par Émile Comba. Première partie: Avant la réforme. 8vo. Paris: Fischbacher; New York: F. W. Christern. 1887.

In the awakening of the human mind and conscience during the dawn which followed the darkness of the tenth and eleventh centuries, three men present themselves preëminently as embodiments of the widely felt craving for an amelioration in the spiritual condition of Christendom—Peter Waldo, Dominic, and Francis of Assisi. The motive which inspired all three was nearly identical, although the results of their several activities were so antagonistic. In their origin the Waldenses, the Dominicans, and the Franciscans responded so closely to the same impulses, that one may say with reasonable confidence that, had Rome listened to Waldo's appeal for recognition of the congregation of preachers which he desired to found, he and his followers would never have thrown off the yoke of obedience, and the outcome of his labors would have been an order of Mendicant preachers in which Dominic and Francis would probably have been enrolled, and which would have played the part of the Dominicans and Franciscans in forming a bulwark for the papacy against the perils threatening it in the thirteenth century. At the same time it must be conceded that if Dominic and Francis had been rejected by Innocent III., there is little probability that they would have emancipated themselves from the fetters of obedience, and have independently pursued their purpose at the risk of creating a schism. Waldo's convictions of duty, however, were so deeply seated and so vivid that when the alternative came of obedience and silence or missionary work and revolt, his election was quickly made and firmly adhered to. To the churchman of the period disobedience was the blackest of sins and the foulest of crimes, which no virtue could atone for and no purity of faith could excuse. Unsuccessful repression was followed by persecution, and persecution inevitably produced rebellion, which necessarily justified itself by denying the authority of the persecutors. Thus it happened that the Waldenses found themselves schismatics when they had proposed only to labor within the Church—to do, in fact, the work subsequently undertaken by Dominic and Francis.

It is thus easy to understand why the doctrinal dissidence of the sect was in reality but small—much less than has customarily been represented by historians, who have regarded them as Protestants in the sense attached to that word at the period of the Reformation. In a body scattered over Europe, from Aragon to Bohemia, in small communities hiding from persecution, there necessarily sprang up differences of belief, as occasional bolder spirits carried their congregations further from Rome; but in the main the heresy was purely antisacerdotal, with a common bond of union in rejecting all submission to the Holy See. Many of them, to comparatively a late period, went to the Catholic churches for the sacraments, although the Donatist heresy of the vitiation of sacraments in polluted hands gradually spread among them and was widely received. In their religious tracts they quoted unhesitatingly from the doctors of the church, even from so late a one as St. Bernard, whom they regarded as an authority. Transubstantiation was generally accepted, and it was some time before they brought themselves universally to reject the doctrine of purgatory. It is a striking evidence of the evils resulting from the sacerdotal system of the mediæval church, that a heresy with so little to distinguish it in fundamentals should have inspired its believers with constancy to endure ruthless persecution for centuries, and to furnish martyrs by the thousand.

History affords few examples of the height to which the human soul can rise above the weaknesses of the flesh, more ennobling than that of these obscure sectaries—peasants and unlettered folk for the most part—who through so many generations patiently suffered the extremity of oppression for conscience' sake. The story is one which will never lose its interest, and the more that we know of it the higher becomes our admiration of the humble martyrs who in endless tribulation sought to ascertain and obey the will of God, regardless of the prescriptions of man. For the rightful understanding of this story much has been gained for us by the researches of scholars during recent years. The labors of Dieckhoff and Herzog have been continued by Montet and Karl Müller. Fable and legend have been brushed aside, and the facts have been brought out in the clear, cold light of history. The time has come for these investigations to be coördinated and rendered accessible to the public, and we are glad that the task has been undertaken by so competent a scholar as Prof. Emilio Comba of the Waldensian College of Florence. Belonging himself to the Waldensian Church, he has the personal sympathy requisite to give life to the story of its vicissitudes, while he has labored too earnestly amid the original sources to permit that sympathy to mislead him into supporting claims which documentary evidence has shown to be unfounded. His previous work, 'La Riforma in Italia,' had shown his intimate acquaintance with the spiritual movements of the Middle Ages, enabling him to grasp his subject in its entirety, as one manifestation among many of revolt against the theocracy of the Church, so that few men could be found more thoroughly equipped for the task. His impartiality is shown in the manner in which he treats the legend of the derivation of the Waldenses from the primitive church through the so-called Leonistæ and Claudius of Turin—a legend which naturally arose among them and has with difficulty been disproved in recent times. This same

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spirit is shown in his treatment of the questions which are still *sub judice*, as to the Waldensian origin of the so-called Catharan Bible of Lyons and of the MS. of Tepl; in which he gives us an unbiassed statement as to the existing condition of opinion among scholars, without attempting to magnify the influence ascribed to Waldensian sources. This mental attitude, so rare among those who discuss controversial subjects, inspires confidence in his readers and gives them assurance that they are following a trustworthy guide.

The work is necessarily much more than its title would indicate, for the Waldenses of Italy could not be treated without a careful review of the growth and creed of the sect throughout Europe. It is, in fact, virtually a history of the movement in all the lands of Christendom to which it penetrated, and we regret that Prof. Comba did not see fit to render it complete in that sense, for it is so nearly so that but few additional pages would have been required. For these he had the materials in his hands, as his citations and references abundantly testify, and the omission has evidently arisen of purpose and not through oversight. Perhaps, when the second portion appears, relating the tragic history of the massacres from the Cottian Alps to Calabria, a more restricted horizon may be advisable, but during the pre-Reformation period the sect could readily have been treated as a whole, in all its details. Still, we have reason to be thankful for what the author has seen fit to give us; we shall await the remainder of the work with impatience, and, when it is completed, we hope that a translation will render it familiar to English-speaking readers on both sides of the Atlantic.

CYCLING LITERATURE.

Around the World on a Bicycle. Vol. I.—From San Francisco to Teheran. By Thomas Stevens. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1887.

Ten Thousand Miles on a Bicycle. By Karl Kron. Published by Karl Kron, University Building, New York. 1887.

AT the meets of wheelmen during the present year, a conspicuous figure has been Thomas Stevens, who has lately accomplished the remarkable feat the record of which appears in 'Around the World on a Bicycle.' The attractive portrait forming the frontispiece of the book, in which Stevens appears mounted on his wheel, his baggage strapped to the handle-bar, his graceful costume flowing free as he proceeds at speed, gives a picture but little flattered. Stevens's features are resolute and manly, while his form, though not tall, is the perfection of vigorous symmetry. He came as a boy from England to a back town of Missouri, and, after various experiences on ranches and in frontier towns, undertook at length the expedition which is really a very extraordinary achievement. The substance of his book has already appeared in the form of letters to *Outing*. In spite of a lapse of grammar now and then, it is in its workmanship a good record—a frank, straightforward presentation, without brag or bosh, of the most novel adventures, sometimes amusing, sometimes full of hardship and peril. A bicycle trip from San Francisco to the heart of Asia, with no break except where the sea intervenes! The suggestion takes one's breath away; but its incidents are less full of excitement and danger than those of the trip from Teheran through Eastern Asia, which are reserved for a second volume.

Stevens's work is always with the wheel, but he is by no means always mounted. Sometimes he wades through the sand of a desert, pushing before him the deeply embedded tire. Sometimes, through a rough or swampy country, he bumps his machine for miles along a railroad-trestle-work; or, on a high mountain pass, carries it in the air above his head. But he finds, also, much good riding ground—now the alkali plains by the Great Salt Lake, now the finished roads of civilized lands, in America; across France and England, and down the Danube; now the caravan tracks of Asia Minor, worn smooth by the constant beat, since patriarchal times, of the flat feet of camels.

His way of surmounting natural obstacles is no more remarkable than his way of getting along with men. Disregarding warnings he receives that he can never get through without being robbed, or, indeed, murdered, taking counsel only of his own courage and persistence, he pushes straight on, and invariably finds the nettle danger turning to feather-down in his bold grasp. With extraordinary tact and pluck he faces in one hemisphere Piute, cowboy, and tramp, and in the other, Turk, Koord, and every kind of nondescript vagabond of the desert, and invariably brings his own skin and his wheel away whole. The stupor into which he strikes a suspicious company is often his salvation. As he dashes into a horde of possible robbers or past a village of reputed thieves, upon his glittering machine, they forget for the moment their proclivities in their surprise or consternation, and, before they recover themselves, he is well on his way. Generally, indeed, he finds that people have a worse reputation than they deserve. Gypsies and Tartars of the most villanous look and repute receive him with friendliness, as he throws himself audaciously upon their hospitality, and, so long as he stays, treat him, as he says, "as well as they know how."

The book, however, is far enough from being a record of hardships merely. By the great fraternity of wheelmen, which he finds represented wherever civilization has spread, he is fêted sumptuously as one undertaking a bold enterprise. The dazed desert tribes, finding him a most mysterious, if not superhuman visitant, pay him often honors unmeasured and sometimes most uncomfortable. When at last, rolling past Ararat into Persia, he brings into the gates of Teheran his wheel apparently as sound and glittering as when he left San Francisco, the reader feels that Stevens deserves it all when the Shah does him special honor and he rides in presence of the whole army. "It is pleasant," says Mr. T. W. Higginson, in a preface full of hearty commendation, "to know that while peace reigns in America, a young man can always find an opportunity to take his life in his hand and originate some exploit as good as those of the much-wandering Ulysses. In the German story 'Titan,' Jean Paul describes a manly youth who 'longed for an adventure for his idle bravery,' and it is pleasant to read the narrative of one who has quietly gone to work in an honest way to satisfy this longing."

The book of "Karl Kron," 'Ten Thousand Miles on a Bicycle,' comprising nine hundred pages of fine print, is "a gazetteer, a dictionary, a cyclopedia, a statistical guide, a thesaurus of facts," a book of American roads for cyclists. As regards its literary form, it is a rattling affair, the animal spirits of the writer bubbling well into the pages, with the pronoun of the first person thrust unsparingly forward. Two chapters of the book—one devoted to a biography of Curl, "My Bull Dorg, the very best dog whose presence ever blessed this planet" (to whose memory the book is dedicated), the other, called "Castle Solitude in the Metropolis," and giving an account of life in the New York University building—seem quite irrelevant to the volume's purpose and to be introduced without sufficient reason. For the most part, however, the book is packed with information of interest to wheelmen, collected, it is plain, with great labor and, so far as we can judge, accurate. Of especial interest is a biography of Thomas Stevens, beginning page 473, which all who read 'Around the World on a Bicycle' will be glad to see. The chapters throughout are most frank and unconventional, and many a graphic passage occurs to relieve statistical detail. For the public it seeks it will be a handy volume, the shortcomings of which one feels disposed to overlook, since the compiler has been so hard-working and good-natured.

Review of the New York Musical Season, 1886–1887. By H. E. Krehbiel. Novello, Ewer & Co.

The Musical Year-Book of the United States, in which is merged the Boston Musical Year-Book. By G. H. Wilson. Boston: A. Mudge & Son.

The Musical Herald for 1886. Boston.

MR. H. E. KREHBIEL has once more placed the future historian of music in America under immense obligations by issuing a year-book of the New York musical season, as elegantly bound and printed as last year's. All the operatic performances and concerts of any significance whatever are mentioned, with lists of performers and programmes; and novelties are always discussed at such length as their importance justifies. Most of the criticisms appeared originally in the *Tribune*, but the author has endeavored, in revising them, to obliterate the traces of hasty midnight work and opinion. The music of Rubinstein's "Nero" would have borne, we think, more rapturous praise, while that of Berlioz's "Les Troyens" is possibly overrated; but as Mr. Krehbiel himself prepared the work for concert performance, he has a good deal that is interesting to tell regarding its dramatic and literary features. Liszt also appears to us underrated in the estimates of his oratorios of "St. Elizabeth" and "Christus." Every man has a right to his opinion, but we for our part prefer to side with Saint-Saëns in believing that Liszt's compositions have a great future in our concert halls. The most elaborate, and at the same time the most interesting, article is that on "Tristan and Isolde," in which some instructive comparisons are made of the different modes of treating the same legend by Tennyson, Swinburne, Matthew Arnold, and Wagner. In his discussion of the love-draught, Mr. Krehbiel shows true æsthetic insight, and puts to rout the absurd objections of shallow German critics. This article will repay study, even by those who are quite familiar with Wagner literature, and the general reader will find in it abundant reasons for the fact that "Tristan" was the most popular work of last year's opera season.

Mr. Krehbiel's retrospect contains some general considerations regarding the Italian, "American," and German opera seasons, including some valuable statistics provided by Manager Stanton, showing that the receipts of the Metropolitan Company (including assessments on stockholders) amounted to about $410,750 and the expenses to $442,000. The attendance was 137,399 (excluding stockholders), and the average income for each ticket sold, $1.47½.

"It must be borne in mind that a large portion of the cost is not directly chargeable against the performances, but is in the nature of fixed charges against the building. If these fixed charges, and the cost of new properties and repairs, be deducted from the amount paid in on assessment, it will be found that the actual cost of the operatic representations per box was $800, or about $13 per box (of six seats) for each performance."

An excellent index facilitates reference to Mr. Krehbiel's volume.

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Mr. Wilson's Year-Book is a much less ambitious undertaking than Mr. Krehbiel's, as it excludes all critical matter and confines itself to statistics and programmes. In another sense, however, it is more ambitious, since it includes a record of the performances given in all the leading musical cities of the country. The Boston season, however, is the main thing, the others being merely "side-shows"; and this excuses the fact that New York is disposed of in eight pages while Boston gets fifty. Boston still retains its supremacy over New York in choral music, but how far it falls behind this city in every other respect is vividly brought out by comparing the concert and opera statistics of the two places. Boston had two operatic performances in Italian and twelve in English—*c'est tout*. New York had sixty-one in German, sixteen in Italian, and twenty-two in English, or seven times as many as Boston. Mr. Wilson, no doubt, will agree with us that what Boston needs now more than anything else to quicken its musical spirit is good opera, especially German opera, which has revolutionized musical taste in New York. Mr. Wilson's book is a valuable supplement to Mr. Krehbiel's local review.

Besides choral music, there is another thing in which Boston stands preëminent, and that is its conservatories. The professors of the New England Conservatory find time to edit the monthly *Musical Herald*, which is one of the most readable musical periodicals of either hemisphere. It contains newsy foreign letters, terse editorials, and general articles, together with some of the lectures delivered by the professors. The most valuable papers in the bound volume for 1886 before us are the articles on Chinese Music and Instruments and the History of German Song, by Mr. L. C. Elson. Mr. Elson, we believe, is the presiding spirit of the paper, and he is one of the cleverest and most liberal-minded musical writers in the country. He cannot, therefore, have read (much less written) the absurd editorial on Herr Seidl in the May number (1887), which not only contains several misstatements of fact, but is animated by a malicious spirit worthy of the "trade-sheets" that live by blackmail.

Popular Tales and Fictions: Their Migrations and Transformations. By W. A. Clouston. London: William Blackwood & Sons; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1887. 2 vols., post 8vo, pp. xiii, 485, 515.

The collection of popular tales is still going on with unwearied ardor, and the amount of material at the disposal of scholars has already reached alarming proportions. Not only has the field of the Indo-European nations been carefully gleaned, but the outlying territories of the non-Aryan peoples have yielded a plentiful harvest, and the collectors of popular tales have invaded the isles of the seas and ransacked the tombs of ancient Egypt. There seems little hope that any material positively new will be collected, and it is time to pause and consider whether it is worth while to continue the search. From a literary standpoint it certainly is not, for none of the later collections equal the first made in this field. Basile's 'Pentamerone' (1637), Perrault's 'Contes de ma mère l'Oye' (1694), and the Grimms' 'Kinder- und Hausmärchen' (1816) have never been surpassed.

There remains the scientific worth of popular tales, and that, we suspect, has been greatly exaggerated. The subject offers but two questions for investigation—one of the origin, the other of the diffusion of popular tales. Three theories have been propounded to account for the former: according to one, popular tales are the disintegrated myths of the mythology forming the common patrimony of the Aryan peoples; another sees in them the survival of savage conditions of life; while a third considers them merely in the light of entertaining stories, for the most part consciously borrowed from India within historical times. The manner of diffusion follows from the theory of their origin. According to the first, they were taken to their present homes at the dispersion of the Aryan peoples; the second "thinks it impossible at present to determine how far they have been transmitted from people to people, and wafted from place to place, in the obscure and unmeasurable past of human antiquity, or how far they may be due to identity of human fancy everywhere"; while the third theory believes they were put into extensive circulation by the translations of Indian story-books made into Persian, Arabic, Latin, and the vulgar tongues of Europe between the sixth and thirteenth centuries.

Each of the above theories has been propounded in well-known works, of which (in the order of theory mentioned before) Cox's 'Mythology of the Aryan Nations,' Lang's 'Custom and Myth,' and Benfey's translation of the 'Pantchatantra' may serve as representatives. Since, from the very nature of things, no positive proof of two of the above theories can be obtained, it would seem, again, as if little were left to do, although Prof. Max Müller and Mr. Andrew Lang, like the enchanted dog and hare in Furetière's story, may pursue each other for all time. On the contrary, the theory of the importation of popular tales into Europe from India still offers a wide field of investigation, and is susceptible of documentary proof. It is not strange, then, that it has commended itself to many Continental Orientalists, who find rich stores of new material in the great mass of inedited Buddhist legends and story-books, one of the most extensive of which, the 'Kathá Sarit Ságara,' has just been rendered accessible to the English reader by C. H. Tawney's admirable translation in the 'Bibliotheca Indica' (Calcutta, 1880–1886, 2 vols.).

While the general reader can follow intelligently the arguments of Cox and Lang, only a specialist can accompany Benfey into the heart of India and the steppes of Tartary, and his theory has not, therefore, found wide circulation in England and America, although many have read with pleasure Max Müller's essay on the "Migrations of Fables" ('Chips,' vol. iv, p. 165), which contains the "Benfey" theory applied to one class of folk-tales. For this reason we welcome very heartily Mr. Clouston's learned and entertaining—in this case the two terms are not incompatible—book. Not that he seeks to support any particular theory—indeed, it might be objected that he is too discursive and unmethodical; but the reader who turns over his pleasant pages cannot, we think, escape the conviction that in regard to a large mass of our entertaining stories, jokes, fables, and the like, there is no doubt that India is their home. What the channels of their diffusion were, and what modifications they underwent during the process, are the real subject of the 'Popular Tales and Fictions,' and constitute the unity of the work.

The Introduction gives a brief account of the way in which stories were brought into Europe from the Orient and so widely diffused. Besides the preachers, who played such an important part in this matter, the *jongleurs*, or itinerant minstrels of the middle ages, many of whom were unfrocked priests, deserve notice. Before the Crusades the stream of Eastern stories entered Europe by way of Spain, where they were translated by Jews into Latin and thus started on the road to popularity. Another landing place was undoubtedly Italy, whose merchants must have brought back many a curious tale from the Orient. After the Crusades, of course, the transmission went on with redoubled vigor, and the number of channels was largely increased. Mr. Clouston's first volume is devoted to fairy tales proper, the second to "stories of common life, which have little or nothing improbable in their details." The fairy tales are treated in groups containing similar features, as, for example, those in which the hero steals or otherwise comes into possession of objects with magical properties, as invisible caps and cloaks, shoes of swiftness, inexhaustible purses, etc. In the second volume the stories are treated separately.

The author has already made himself favorably known by his excellent edition of 'The Book of Sindibād' (1884), and was well prepared by his Oriental studies to undertake the task of comparing Eastern and Western tales. As he modestly says in his preface, he has made some "discoveries," "links which were wanted to unite European stories with their Asiatic originals or prototypes; and occasionally, hitherto unknown sources, or at least Eastern variants, of our household tales" Outside of these and of the ordinary European parallels Mr. Clouston has not gone, and American readers will miss in the chapter on the "Hare and the Tortoise" a reference to the 'Amazonian Tortoise Myths' of Prof. C. F. Hartt (Rio de Janeiro, 1875), and Mr. Harris's 'Uncle Remus.' Sometimes European versions easy of access have been omitted, as in the story of the "Good Man and the Bad Man," which has interesting Italian parallels, and a large number of additional references for the "Heir of Linne" may be found in Oesterley's edition of Pauli's 'Schimpf und Ernst' (Stuttgart, 1866), appendix No. 16. It was, however, no part of Mr. Clouston's plan to extend his researches over the entire field of folk-tales, European and otherwise, and he is evidently little interested in Mr. Lang's theory of their origin; but, on the other hand, he has enriched our reading with many a delightful Oriental tale which had else escaped us.

Thus far we have examined Mr. Clouston's book solely from the standpoint of its scientific value. It would be unfair not to consider it also as a contribution of no mean order to entertaining literature. Almost every branch of popular literature is represented in it, from the nursery rhyme to the legend; while those who are fond of jests and anecdotes may draw many fresh parallels from its pages. In short, it is calculated to interest a wide circle of readers, from those who wish to while away pleasantly an idle hour, to the serious student who desires to track a tale of Chaucer or Boccaccio to its Oriental home. The book is beautifully printed, and is, moreover, bound in half Roxburghe style, gaining a solidity of appearance denied to the usual ephemeral cloth binding.

Connecticut: A Study of a Commonwealth-Democracy. By Alexander Johnston. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1887.

The easy and graceful style of which Prof. Johnston is master would make almost any subject attractive in his hands, and the subject that he has chosen is well-fitted to be treated in such a style. However important the lessons of this history may be, the stage upon which the events were enacted is too small to justify the stately sentences and pompous phraseology of Gibbon or Macaulay; and the simplicity, not to say poverty, of the life of the early settlers is properly reflected in unadorned narrative. There is a twinkle of humor from time to time in the author's writing that is not only appropriate, but serves to light up details in their main features somewhat monotonous. It serves, too, in the place of such gossip as Judge Sewall's, which is for the most part lacking in the Connecticut annals. To make an interesting book out of the ma-

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terials available and within the allowed limits is no inconsiderable literary achievement, and men of Connecticut descent may well be satisfied with their representative.

The dominant idea of the book is the spontaneous generation, so to speak, of democracy upon Connecticut soil. There and nowhere else, according to Prof. Johnston, did it originate. Neither in the cabin of the *Mayflower* nor on the shores of the Bay Colony was anything conceived other than theocracy or aristocracy. He admits that the Plymouth system was "accidentally" democratic, but thinks that it was from the absence of any great need for government, or from care to preserve homogeneity in religion, not from political purpose. The *Mayflower* covenant had, according to him, "not a particle of political significance." In Massachusetts, too, the development of democratic feeling was subsequent to the settlement of Connecticut.

Matter so highly contentious as this ought to be very carefully stated, and we do not find that Prof. Johnston's proofs are altogether convincing. For example, he says: "Hooker was undoubtedly the strength of the migration; and he had been so notoriously opposed to Cotton in the old colony that it would be reasonable to presume that he differed *toto cœlo* from Cotton's views as to democracy." Whether this is a reasonable presumption or not depends upon a good many considerations. The fact that Hooker preached that the choice of public magistrates belonged to the people is not decisive. He also preached that this choice must be exercised not according to the humor of the people, but according to the law of God. Where there is an established church this is not a democratic sentiment. Undoubtedly the emigrants to Connecticut were hostile to the dominant party in Massachusetts, and very naturally asserted their independence when they got a chance. To suppose that they had any other purpose than to get away from a tyrannical majority, is much like maintaining that the Pilgrim fathers intended to establish religious liberty in some other sense than liberty to be religious in their own way. Prof. Johnston points out that the State required no religious test of citizens, but he says nothing as to the tests imposed by the towns. His arguments go to show that the Government of Connecticut was less centralized than that of Massachusetts—there could hardly be much of a "central" government for three towns—but these do not seem to us to justify the conclusion that there was any very distinct purpose to constitute a democracy. We should desire further information as to the numbers of the slaves and bondmen, as well as of the non-church-members, before joining in the pæan—The birthplace of American democracy is Hartford.

Something the same is to be said of Prof. Johnston's theory that in Connecticut the towns created the commonwealth, while in other States the relation was reversed. He traces the life-principle of the American Union to the league of the three settlements on the bank of the Connecticut River. In other words, he considers that the Constitution of the United States is a magnified form of the Constitution of the State of Connecticut. We do not observe that he makes the claim—which we suppose to be tenable—that the special reservation of powers to the States was a Connecticut suggestion. But perhaps this is implied in the claims that he does make. It is not that we wish to dispute any of these claims that we have criticised them; but we doubt if they are sufficiently defended against the jealousy with which they will be viewed in other States.

At the risk of making our notice, what we do not intend it to be, ungracious, we must say that Prof. Johnston yields too much to patriotic sentiment, and is prone to apply the maxim *Nil nisi bonum* to whole communities. The Pequot war was an infamous massacre, provoked by the whites, and properly to be compared with the cruelties of the French in Algiers or the Turks in Bulgaria. The suppression of the proposed college for free colored people at New Haven was an act of too much significance to be dismissed with a dozen lines. There were others concerned in this scheme besides "free negroes"; the Rev. Mr. Jocleyn of New Haven had started it, and Arthur Tappan had bought land and agreed to contribute one thousand dollars out of ten which the white friends of the institution should provide. They and Mr. Garrison had recommended New Haven to the blacks on the ground that its inhabitants were "friendly, pious, generous, and humane," and its laws "salutary and protecting to all, without regard to complexion." Those generous inhabitants, however, partly under the influence of that singular agency for whipping the devil around the stump, the Colonization Society, partly out of a pitiful fear of offending their Southern patrons, resolved, at a city meeting, with only four dissenting votes, that they would resist the establishment of the proposed college by every lawful means; and thus an end was put to the scheme. Such a proportion of righteous men would have taxed the intercessory powers of Abraham.

As to the Prudence Crandall episode, Prof. Johnston's explanation is singular. He says, on the one hand, that the town of Canterbury would have been assuming a great responsibility in permitting the school, because this would have been the work of no superior power, but its own act; and, on the other hand, the recognized principle that towns should control their own affairs made it easy for Canterbury to get an act from the General Assembly empowering its selectmen to deal with this question. We fail to see the extenuating character of these circumstances. Pilate did not better his moral position by turning his prisoner over to the Jews for trial; nor do the Jews stand better for getting leave to persecute from Pilate. If the people of the State had sympathized with Miss Crandall instead of with her persecutors, they would not have passed an act intended to relieve the town of Canterbury *of a responsibility which, as Prof. Johnston says,* it could not shirk. The blame of this discreditable affair is not to be thrown upon "the peculiar local constitution" of Connecticut, but upon the cowardly spirit of its inhabitants.

However it may be as to these matters, no one can dispute the greatness of the influence of Connecticut institutions, and her people may well feel pride in the story that Prof. Johnston has told. He has told it with judgment, and it is easy to see how irksome he must have found his narrow limits.

Such a State and such a book deserve a better map than the publishers have supplied, which has been borrowed, apparently, from a railroad time-table. In future editions, which will no doubt be called for, this ought to be replaced with something more respectable; and in such editions, the sentence near the foot of page 88 and the misprints on pages 268–9 should be corrected.

The Kernel and the Husk: Letters on Spiritual Christianity. By the author of 'Philochristus' and 'Onesimus.' Boston: Roberts Bros. 1887.

It is an open secret that the author of this volume is Dr. Abbott, Head-master of the City of London School, and author, besides the anonymous books mentioned above, of the article on the Gospels in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' which is particularly valuable for its working out of the "triple tradition" of the first three Gospels, *i. e.*, the fundamental nucleus in which they all substantially agree. Some things are now treated much more exhaustively than heretofore; notably, the New Testament miracles and their relation to early Christianity. The volume is dedicated "to the doubters of this generation and the believers of the next." In his preface Dr. Abbott expresses his belief that the time is not far distant when few will believe in miracles who do not believe in an infallible church; then his book will appeal to a larger circle; but, as things are, he begs all who worship a miraculous Christ without difficulty to let his book alone. It is written for those who feel drawn to the worship of Christ by love and reverence, yet repelled by an apparently inextricable connection of the story of Christ with a miraculous element which, in their minds, throws a doubt over the whole of his acts. He tells a story of a fellow-clergyman who had read 'Philochristus,' and when dying sent to him to ask him if he could look him in the face and say, "This theology and Christology of mine are not merely literary." The dying man had been "taught to believe too much while he was young," and had reacted violently to the "abyss of agnosticism." Dr. Abbott was able to tell him that his views were not merely literary; yet, while his honesty will not be suspected by any generous person, it is doubtful if many will be able to keep pace with his elastic step. The majority will probably wonder at his confidence in the sufficiency of his opinions, which imply a passion of credulity so strong that his sticking at the New Testament miracles appears exceeding strange. Between his propositions and those of the traditional theology many will choose the latter as less trying to their faith, or as being, at any rate, less trying to their powers of intellectual comprehension.

The form of the discussion is not well chosen. It is that of imaginary letters to a sceptical young friend, whose answers are not given except in brief particulars, quoted in the letters of the monologuist. There is here the same danger as in a game of chess or a dialogue with one's self—that we weaken our imaginary opponent in order that we may win an easy victory. But Dr. Abbott is not so much a victim to his method as are many who make use of it. Certainly the objections that occur to us as we read are generally met in the succeeding letters. But this is not to say that the book is as satisfactory as it would be if the answers were from some hard-headed actual opponent. He sometimes arouses our suspicions by the ease with which he makes all difficulties disappear. His solvent is too irresistible. We are reminded of the schoolboy's axiom, "Things that are equal to each other are equal to everything else," so completely are the usual lines of difference effaced.

The book is very unequal in its different parts. Some are characterized by hard sense and critical judgment, and others seem given over to the wildest possible vagaries. The valuable parts are those in which the scholar and the critic speaks; the less valuable those in which we hear from the psychologist and metaphysician. The opening letters state the question. The author's correspondent is in danger of giving up Christianity and refusing ordination because he cannot accept the miracles of the New Testament as true. A letter headed "Personal" is interesting as evidently a brief autobiography of Dr. Abbott. Then follow several chapters on the relation of imagination to reason and belief. It is exactly here that it is much to be desired that Dr. Abbott's letters should be answered by another person, and Prof. Tyndall would do very well. Dr. Abbott is very full of Dr. Mozley's notion that scientific certainty is only of the past, but for his "irrational impulse" he predicates the imagination. What he wishes to introduce by this postern, however, is not the miraculous, but various beliefs of which no rational account can be

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given. And here Prof. Tyndall's article on "The Scientific Use of the Imagination" would be a good answering letter. That use is very different from any of the wildness for which Dr. Abbott eloquently contends. It will be observed that the faith on which he insists as born of the imagination is very different from the traditional faith of Christianity. This is a supplementary faculty superior to reason and much more infallible. But Dr. Abbott's "faith" is something that looks for its justification to the uncertainties of ordinary knowledge. It is of a piece with these uncertainties.

The most remarkable feature of Dr. Abbott's book, considering that its principal object is to contend for a purely natural Christianity, is its insistence on the existence of Satan. Nowhere is the book so nearly eloquent as in making this point. He finds it "difficult to listen patiently," he says, "to what people are pleased to call arguments against it." It seems to him "that if we are to have a genuine trust in God it is almost necessary that we should believe in the existence of a Satan." The poor need the comfort of this belief, and the rich the help of it for a social inspiration. The New Testament warrant for it is easy to make out, but Dr. Abbott argues it from experience as well as from the words of Jesus. He does not think it would be well to personify Satan with the same vividness with which we personify the Father in heaven. Where this Satan, this "enemy," came from, he does not attempt to say, but he is sure that the Almighty is not in the least responsible for him.

The part played by illusion in the development of faith is the subject of several letters, and "the worship of Christ" of several more. Dr. Abbott worships Christ as the incarnation of the goodness of the world, but the steps by which he passes to this worship from a conception of his purely human character are difficult to find and follow. It is not a little refreshing, after the vague and fanciful character of much that he has written here, to come upon the succession of chapters on the miracles of the Old Testament and New. The method and the results of these chapters may not commend themselves equally to all, but they will not be found either vague or dull, and their considerations are such as the traditional believer in the miraculous must squarely reckon with. Their freshness is owing in a great degree to the boldness and ingenuity of their attempt to account for the miracle stories by the unconscious perversion of words and phrases in early hymns and Scriptures of the Church. His minute and patient study of the New Testament makes all he says in this connection interesting and important. His treatment of the greatest miracles recorded, the resurrection of Jesus and his miraculous birth, is much less successful than his treatment of the others, for with these he is "bound in the spirit" to save something of reality. What he saves from the resurrection is (he thinks) a vision purely subjective, but absolutely convincing, of the immortal Christ. His negative considerations are likely to be much more effective than those that aim at a positive rehabilitation.

Lastly, we have two letters on the relations of the Church of England to a non-miraculous Christianity. The first asks the question, "Can a believer in Natural Christianity be a minister in the Church in England?" The second tells "what the Bishops might do" to make it easier for those who have given up miracles, and the infallible Bible, and the deity and authority of Christ, to accept ordination. Dr. Abbott contends in advance that he has not "the clerical mind"; that he is not a special pleader for the Church or for its ministers, but a man resolutely bent on seeing things as they are. But it may well be doubted whether he has obeyed the injunction of old time, "Know thyself." His book throughout impresses us as the work of a man bound at all hazards (never with conscious indirection) to save the husk of the old doctrine and observance, while letting the kernel go. His problem is, How can we still keep up a show of the old forms and phrases, whatever must be given up of their original contents? And though we are sure he would be immeasurably grieved to have it so, we are obliged to think that the encouragement of intellectual dishonesty will be the principal outcome of his book. He "cannot think that any sincere worshipper ought so far to take offence at one or two expressions in the Creed—which may be interpreted by him metaphorically, though by others literally—as to separate on that account from the national Church. Grant that his interpretation may be a little strained—nay, grant even that he is obliged to say, 'I cannot believe this'—yet I should doubt the necessity, or even wisdom and rightness, of cutting himself off from the Church of England because of one or two clauses of the Creed, so long as he feels himself in general harmony with the Church doctrine and services"; advice which, by force of contrast, reminds us of Carlyle's to John Sterling: "Elsewhither for a refuge or die here! Go to perdition if thou must; but with a lie in thy mouth?—By the Eternal Maker, No!" But what need there is of some device to save the young men of England to the Church, is evinced by a postscript to "Letter 30." At Trinity and St. John's, Cambridge, the two largest colleges, only eight Fellows out of sixty took holy orders from 1873 to 1879; from 1880 to 1886, only three out of sixty. Of sixty Fellows of Trinity who took degrees from 1873 to 1886, only two have been ordained. Carlyle's advice to Sterling seems to have prevailed.

Historia Numorum: a Manual of Greek Numismatics. By Barclay V. Head, Assistant Keeper of the Department of Coins and Medals in the British Museum. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

THIS book, long looked for by students of numismatics, constitutes, in the entire range of coinage, Greek and related to the Greek, the *vade mecum* which, since Mionnet's catalogue was issued, has been a desideratum unfulfilled. Its limitation to Greek coinage and its affiliations is justified by the enormously greater importance of Greek numismatics, as an aid to archæology, art, and history, in comparison with all other branches of the science, as well as by the fascinating completeness and harmony of its system. It replaces the voluminous Mionnet by a still ponderous but much more useful book, hardly by its bulk (808 large octavo pages, besides introduction and alphabetical tables) disqualified to be the travelling companion of the student of numismatics. To make it less was clearly impossible, for condensation could go no further than Mr. Head has carried it without becoming obscurity. The introduction of eighty pages of fine type containing an admirable index and résumé of all that part of archæological lore which is necessary to the student; a brief and modest preface; such a compendium of bibliography as will suffice for all students not specialists; a condensed history of the coining of money as far as known, beginning with modes of exchange by barter employed before money; the metric systems of Egyptians, Babylonians, and Assyrians; the Phœnicians, the Lydians, and their position in relation to numismatics and their invention of coinage; Babylonian and Phœnician values of the precious metals; transmission of weight standards (an interesting exposition of an involved subject); the types of Greek coinage, in which this almost romantic subject is fully dealt with in principle; chronological classification, which is, in fact, a brief history of coin art; a section on inscriptions, and another on inscribed names of functionaries; the relation of public games and festivals to coinage; civic titles and epithets; alliance coins, colonial coins, and dated coins—this synopsis will suffice to show how complete is the investigation involved; but the book alone will give one to understand with what scholarly intelligence and conciseness the pith of all these themes has been given by Mr. Head.

To quote from the mass of concentrated information is difficult, but the section on the chronological classification of coins by style may be taken as giving one of the principal reasons of the importance of the author's subject:

"It has been often and truly said that Greek coins are the grammar of Greek art, for it is only by means of its coins that we can trace the whole course of art from its very beginning to its latest decline. Neither statues, bronzes, vases, nor gems can, as a rule, be quite satisfactorily and exactly dated. Coins, on the other hand, admit of a far more precise classification, for in every period there are numerous coins of which the dates can be positively determined; and around these fixed points a little experience enables the numismatist to group, within certain limits, all the rest."

Besides the coinage of Greece properly considered, those of states whose mints were influenced by the Greek are considered briefly, as, the Roman, Latin, Etruscan, Phœnician, British, etc. In speaking of Central Gaul, the author says this "was the district in which the gold staters of Philip were first imitated." Without contesting the accuracy of this statement, for Mr. Head is too careful and learned a numismatist to make it without authority, we should like to know the grounds of this conclusion, for this seems hardly the conclusion of Pulski (not noted in the bibliography), who has studied the question profoundly, and traced the staters copied from Philip's, from the lower Danube to England. As the Gauls of the lower Danube were those who first came in contact with Greek civilization and carried on trade with Macedon, in the time of or soon after Philip, it seems hardly natural for the first copies to be made so far away as Aquitaine.

The 'Historia Numorum,' from the name and authority of its author, will find its way as a book of reference into every numismatic library; but as a compendium of all that the beginner and casual collector wants to know, for its judicious selection of types for illustration, as well as for lucid statement, whether with reference to the artistic or historical side of numismatics, it becomes an indispensable text-book. The "process" illustrations, made from casts of the coins, are all that is needed for identification of the various mints and epochs, as well as for the general artistic qualities of the coins. There is no attempt on the part of the author to urge speculative theories, or to pass the limits of sober investigation, though in a subject of this kind conjecture must often bridge over the void between well-ascertained facts; and no dogmatism impairs the value of this admirable book, which may be safely recommended as a guide into the study of general as well as Greek numismatics from the way in which the connection of Greek with non-Greek coinage is shown at all points of contact.

Life among the Germans. By Emma Louise Parry. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. 1887.

MISS PARRY'S book is sensible, fresh, and fairly interesting—just what one would expect a book to be which was written by a young American woman (she calls herself a female), neither rich nor poor, orthodox in faith, and, apparently, a schoolmistress by profession. It lacks, indeed, the touch of genius which converts the dross of

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mere fact and opinion into the gold of literature; but this is partly the fault of the subject. Not even Mr. Hamerton could invest his abode in Germany, if he had one, with the nameless charm which pervades every page of his account of 'Round My House' in France. From Howitt and Mathews, of forty years ago, to Miss Parry of to-day, not one of many English writers who have described German life has been able to produce a work (we exclude fiction) of any literary value, unless we except Mr. Hawthorne, whose work is a satire rather than a description. All young Americans return from Germany full of enthusiasm, and dreaming of the time when they can resume their delightful life there. But if they resume it after a dozen years, as occasionally happens, they usually find that the charm lay in the glamour of youth and of intellectual emulation, not in the German background. Miss Parry, however, is less enthusiastic than is commonly the case, perhaps because too mature to be carried away by temporary impressions. She never forgets the American standard of manners, domestic comfort, and household sentiment, and finds that even in instruction Germany is behind America in some departments.

The preface to her book, written by another hand, dwells upon the fact that it is not a mere traveller's diary, but a view of German life from the inside. It is this, but hardly to the extent which the preface indicates or the author evidently thinks, in spite of the fact that she spent less than a year in Germany. She studied Latin at the Victoria Lyceum, and was regarded as a phenomenon in consequence; and indeed she would be deemed a phenomenon, as a Latin scholar, in any country, judging by the phrase "omnia *est* vanitas," the only one from that language with which she adorns her pages. It is not clear why she should quote the Old Testament in the Latin version, but it is certain that the translator of the Vulgate does not authorize the opinion that vanity is everything. Her chief effort, however, seems to have been to learn German, which, she says, she "resolved to conquer." We regret to say that, judging from the evidence her book furnishes, she has but imperfectly succeeded. There is an error of some kind on nearly every page; and though many of these are doubtless due to the printer (as when Varnhagen von Ense is distorted into "Von Hargen von Euse"), he cannot be made to shoulder all of them. Especially reckless is she with her genders, giving or withholding them with as much abandon as a cockney does his "h's." When she enters her boarding-house (the description of which is the best thing in the book), she finds "ten other *pensioneren*," meaning *Pensionäre;* on the table she finds a contribution-box "für *den* [die] Armen," as well as meets a "herzliche [s] Willkommen," after which she is "melded" (*gemeldet*) to the police; she is taken in to dinner by a "Herr Capitaine" (*Kapitän*, sea-captain, but the context shows that *Hauptmann*, captain in the army, is meant), and so on; while her ignorance of the difference between shall and will, and the frequent misuse of other words, make the reader think that less Latin (and German) and more English would improve her style. Perhaps her most singular error is where she confounds English and German in her version of the familiar legend of the Wartburg—"'Wart', Berg, du sollst eine Burg werden"—which, *werden* here being translatable into "become," she quotes, "—— du sollst eine Burg bekommen." Almost equally comical is the frequently recurring translation of the familiar phrase "es geht los" as "it goes loose," and of "gern haben" as "have kindly." But though our author's fund of general information, as well as of German, might be increased, we take leave of her with regret, and shall remember with pleasure several of her entertaining pictures of Berlin life—above all, that of the "family of American ancestry," whose good deeds and charming manners are described so minutely.

Yachts, Boats, and Canoes. By C. Stansfeld-Hicks. *Forest and Stream* Publishing Company.

As a manual for amateurs who are seeking amusement in small boats and canoes, Mr. Stansfeld-Hicks's book, although roughly put together, will serve a useful purpose. It makes no pretence of being a scientific treatise—indeed, much of it is little better than a commonplace scrap-book; but it contains the facts that amateurs need to know, and it states them in such a way that they can be readily grasped. The author appreciates keenly the fascinations of single-handed sailing, and his enthusiasm for this most exacting and most delightful sport will find a warm response from all genuine yachtsmen. With anything larger than a three-tonner he has little to do. A considerable part of his book is devoted to the amusement that has come into vogue of late years, under the name of "model yachting." As compared with real yacht-sailing, model yachting, though in its diminutive way a pretty sport, hardly deserves its name. Apart from the element of danger, which of course is wholly wanting, and the uncertainty attending its conditions and results, there is no analogy between the miniature craft, used for automatic racing in tiny seas, and the real vessel navigating a real sea under the guidance of a mind and hand on board. In spite of its uncertain elements, however, model yachting bids fair to have a future, and the author's practical hints will assist its development.

Mr. Stansfeld-Hicks has of course a word to say on the vexed question of "skimming-dishes" versus cutters. He goes so far as to admit that "the present English type of racing yacht, which is produced by the tonnage rule taxing length and beam and allowing unlimited depth, though far superior to the shallow class of boat, has probably been carried to an extreme"; and he adds: "The contests between the *Genesta* and *Puritan*, *Galatea* and *Mayflower*, and especially the *Miranda* and the American schooners, show that beamy vessels of small proportionate displacement and large sail area are not to be despised, especially in smooth water and light winds." This is a handsome concession for an Englishman to make, though it is much like a Frenchman's saying, after the war of 1870, that the Germans were not altogether contemptible antagonists. After reading it, one is hardly surprised to learn from this ingenuous author that the Americans, "with *Puritan* and *Mayflower*, have kept up the idea that they are able to put something together that will get through the water." It may be suggested that the recent contest at Marblehead has come just in time to keep up still further this "idea," and that, as the race took place in genuine cutter weather, it has sufficiently proved that smooth water and light winds are not indispensable conditions for a victory of the *Mayflower* over the *Galatea*.

Chapters on English Metre. By Joseph B. Mayor, M.A. London: C. J. Clay & Sons.

In the above-named work, Prof. Mayor has published certain papers, "greatly modified and expanded," originally read before the London Philological Society between 1874 and 1877, which form seven chapters of the work, and has added five other chapters. He entitles the work 'Chapters on Metre' "in order to show that it makes no pretence to completeness," and states his object to be "to ascertain, by a process of induction, the more general laws of our modern metre, and to test the results in a variety of instances." He adds the wish "that some competent scholar would take up that historical side of the question which I have left untouched." While Prof. Mayor is acquainted with Schipper's 'Englische Metrik,' as he makes two references to it, he does not state that this is just the point of view from which Schipper's work is written, and when it is completed, probably during the current year, we shall have a complete historical development of English rhythms. Schipper's first volume ends with Lyndsay, and Prof. Mayor begins his studies with Surrey, so that the two do not occupy common ground.

The subject of English metre is one of great importance, and has been heretofore much neglected. It is an interesting sign of progress that scholars are devoting themselves to the study of it, notwithstanding the different "systems," so called, to a criticism of which Prof. Mayor devotes a large portion of his work. His introductory chapter assumes the postulate "that a scientific treatment of the subject of metre is possible and is desirable," and his criticisms are directed to ascertaining "how far this desirable end has been already achieved." He holds that the classical names of the feet are to be retained for the sake of convenience, it being clearly understood what they mean in English verse; that "the routine scansion" is "natural and necessary," as well as scientific—as against Mr. Alexander J. Ellis; and that it is "of use in the interests of education." In this latter aspect Prof. Mayor has a co-worker in this country in Mr. F. B. Gummere, who has endeavored to popularize a knowledge of metre in the interests of education, by his 'Handbook of Poetics.'

After a brief summary of the business of a metrist, Prof. Mayor proceeds to criticise the metrical systems of Dr. Guest, Dr. Abbott, Mr. Symonds, and Mr. Ellis, with brief notice of Prof. Masson and Mr. Keightley on the verse of Milton. The chapter on Dr. Guest's 'Antiquarian A-Priorism' is a work of supererogation, for no one can read Prof. Skeat's recent republication of Dr. Guest's work without realizing that it is altogether antiquated, and that no such cumbrous system can ever be applied to English metres, though we must give Dr. Guest credit for realizing the importance of accent in English verse, and for first attempting an historical treatment of English metre. Prof. Mayor's system is so similar to that of Dr. Abbott that the differences seem to be more a question of words than facts. He says, indeed: "In its general outline I believe this to be the true and natural system, giving technical expression to the practice of the best writers and readers of poetry, and not setting up an antiquarian standard to which they are required to conform." He thinks, however, that Dr. Abbott "is too much enamoured with a mechanical regularity, and makes too little allowance for the freedom of English versification." The criticisms touch mainly contraction and resolution in verse, which Prof. Mayor would restrict, and therefore admit anapæsts and dactyls more freely in iambic and trochaic verse. He objects, too, to the accentuation of *the*, *a*, and other light words usually unaccented, and so would admit the pyrrhic much more frequently than Dr. Abbott; but it is difficult to see how we are to get over accenting such words sometimes in Shaksperian verse, even though the stress may not be as heavy as that on a fully accented syllable, for a pyrrhic in iambic or trochaic metre will follow the normal accentuation of the foot. Dr. Abbott's remarks on this chapter show that the two are in closer agreement than one would suppose from Prof. Mayor's criticisms. Mr. Symonds's views, as given in his article on the

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"Blank Verse of Milton" (*Fortnightly Review* for December, 1874) are styled "Æsthetic Intuitivism," and they are criticised as encouraging the delusion "that poetry is subject to no rules and admits of no science." "His æsthetic analysis may be excellent in itself, but it cannot take the place of the scientific analysis, nor is there the least inconsistency between them." Prof. Mayor finds himself in closer agreement with Mr. A. J. Ellis, and quotes largely from a paper read by Mr. Ellis before the Philological Society in 1876 in exposition of his system; but he well remarks upon this: "Whilst I admire, I with difficulty repress a shudder at the elaborate apparatus he has provided for registering the minutest variations of metrical stress"; and further: "If the analysis of rhythm is so terribly complicated, let us rush into the arms of the intuitivists and trust to our ears only, for life is not long enough to admit of characterizing lines when there are *forty-five* expressions for each syllable to be considered." This is a very just criticism of Mr. Ellis's elaborate, but, as it seems to us, purely ideal system. Mr. Ellis is enamoured of mechanical symmetry, and not one ear in a thousand would distinguish a tithe of the forty-five degrees of "force, length, pitch, weight, and *silence*" (!) that he has worked out in his comprehensive scheme; and he himself adds: "For all practical purposes the three principal degrees suffice, but fewer will not serve." But this gives us *fifteen* points to consider about every syllable, and practically excludes all but the initiated few from discussing metrical questions. For some of Mr. Ellis's complex distinctions Prof. Mayor fails to see any ground, and says: "To insist upon them as essential to the appreciation of rhythm seems to me to be putting an unnecessary burden on all students of poetry."

But the brief limits of this notice will not permit further discussion. Prof. Mayor has an interesting chapter on "Metrical Metamorphosis," but is not always consistent in his own scansion (cf. *myriad* on pp. 81, 88, 98, 189). His naming and classification of metres, with illustrations from Tennyson and the Hymn-Book, will be generally concurred in, though here, too, exception may occasionally be taken to the scansion of certain lines. He closes his work with a discussion of the blank verse of Surrey and Marlowe, of Shakspere as seen in "Macbeth" and "Hamlet," and of Tennyson and Browning. We cannot assent to his accentuation of many of Surrey's lines, especially of proper names, and where he admits a trochee in the *fifth* place, which is particularly harsh in iambic rhythm. The Chaucerian accentuation was still alive for Surrey. We close with the remark that if any one needs to be convinced of the great superiority of Tennyson to Browning as a metrist, let him read Prof. Mayor's last chapter.

The Development of the Roman Constitution. By Ambrose Tighe, formerly Tutor and Douglas Fellow at Yale College. [History Primers.] D. Appleton & Co. 12mo, pp. 131.

Mr. Tighe has rendered American scholars a very great service in placing before them a compact statement of the present accepted view of the early history of the Roman Constitution. Such a view, in a clear and connected form, has not hitherto been attainable in the English language; and students of the Roman institutions who had not access to German or French treatises, have been obliged to put up with the exploded theories of fifty years ago, or to search for a more correct system scattered through the pages of a general history. The only objection we have as a whole to the work before us is its brevity. It is an admirable sketch of its subject; but it is a subject which could not advantageously be compressed within the pages of a "primer." In several instances the statement lacks precision merely because the author had not room to work out the point as was needed. References, also, and in some cases authorities, would have been very desirable.

Mr. Tighe has held pretty closely to Mommsen's views, as he states in the preface; yet he is not a slavish follower, but gives evidence of independent study and independent thinking. In some instances, he says, he has followed Mommsen "in spite of my own conviction that he is in error," instancing the notion "that the *gens* was a union of kinsmen." It is hard to say what is the duty of the compiler in such a case. Mr. Tighe has solved the problem by accompanying the accepted view with a discussion (p. 33) of its validity. This discussion is excellent, but belongs rather to the subject of the history of institutions in general than of Roman institutions. We think it would have been better to have simply qualified the general statement with some such phrase as "generally believed," or "believed by the ancients." This discussion is really out of place in a book as small as this.

The part of the book which satisfies us least is chapter v., "The Fight without the City"—not that this is not in the main correct and instructive, but that the author does not appear to us to have grasped the facts of the external growth of the Roman State as fully as those of the internal growth. In the first place, we have no definition of the city, that fundamental institution of both Greeks and Romans which hardly any English writer appears fully to comprehend. The successive stages in the development of the Roman power in Italy are not clearly marked, nor are the different classes of Italian States distinctly defined, in their relation to Rome. Neither the *municipia* nor the *coloniæ Romanæ* are mentioned, nor are the two classes of *præfecturæ*—those which enjoyed the *jus Cœritum* and those which were stripped of all local autonomy—distinguished. The section upon the Roman Roads is hardly more than a description, with no adequate account of their relation to the governmental system. In short, this chapter seems hurried and unduly abbreviated by the exigencies of the "primer." In the two succeeding chapters, "The Fight within the City" and "The Government of Rome," this defect is less observable, and these chapters are, as a whole, admirable. We think it a mistake to represent the secession of 494 as a result of the agrarian controversies; the agrarian laws were proposed as a remedy for the evils, but the evils themselves were principally due to other causes. The Canuleian law, a measure of fundamental importance, is not mentioned. The constitutional changes in sections 12 and 13 are overcrowded, so as to result in loss of perspective, another result of the compendious treatment: for example, the reader would certainly gather that the military quæstors were established directly after the decemvirate, instead of twenty-eight years later.

We have a few criticisms upon points of detail. It is perhaps probable, but by no means certain—and, we believe, without an atom of historical evidence—that "the clan . . . had a natural head, who ruled over it with absolute power" (p. 44) in the earliest times. On page 49 there is no mention of the *lex curiata de imperio*. On page 79, "the" before "Formiæ" should be omitted. On the same page it is misleading to assert that the tribes of Servius Tullius "were made up after the analogy of the three original tribes." Even if each of the original tribes had a territory to itself—which has not been stated—yet this territory was simply an adjunct to the genealogical tribe, while the new tribes were primarily territorial. The Latin colonists were in later times "Roman citizens, who were willing to suffer a diminution in their political rights" (p. 82), but originally they were in part Latin citizens. The money paid for the use of lands held by *occupatio* can hardly be called "a fixed annual rental" (p. 89); it was a fixed proportion of the produce. The statement (p. 116) that the duty of appointing the senators was given to the censors in 435 is incorrect: it was not until more than a century later. It seems to us that Willems has proved that the *senatores pedarii* had "the right of speaking" (p. 117). It was only the *sixteen* earliest formed rural tribes that "took their name from the principal clans" (p. 119); the seventeenth, *Clustumina*, had a local name. In most of these cases the inaccurate statement seems to have come from the necessity of condensing and abridging.

Through the Fields with Linnæus. A Chapter in Swedish History. By Mrs. Florence Caddy. London: Longmans; Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1887. 2 vols., pp. 347 and 376.

In these chatty and discursive volumes, notwithstanding the exceptions that might be taken here and there by an austere censor, Mrs. Caddy contrives to make a very life-like picture of Linnæus, and to bring him closer to the sympathies of ordinary educated people than he has ever been brought before. Her method is to follow the footsteps of the great naturalist on his way through life, to study and depict his environment at every stage, to accompany him on his scientific journeys, and make his observations with him—in short, to try to revivify all the scenes through which he passed. For this work the writer has prepared herself by visiting and carefully examining the various localities with which the fame of Linnæus is chiefly connected, and by travelling over at least a large part of the ground which he traversed. The aim of the work is not to build a new monument to a man of genius, not to expound his theories or to explain his exact position in the history of science, but to take us with him, and enable us to see what he saw, to participate in his feelings, and to think his thoughts over after him. But we may as well let the author speak for herself as to her intentions:

"What the present generation knows about Linnæus is an obsolete system and a few trivial anecdotes. In painting his portrait I have tried to give as a background the things he saw, the scenes he moved in, the continuous diorama of his life, which abounded with adventure more than usually falls to the lot of scholars, 'whose fame is acquired in solitude.' I wish it may be thought a pleasant yarn about Linnæus."

The first chapter is devoted to the neighborhood of the naturalist's early home, to the pedigree of his family, and to his boyish fondness for plants and insects; a second describes his school life at Wexiö, a third takes him to Lund, and a fourth to Upsala, where his bitter struggle with poverty is vividly portrayed. Then we accompany him on his first scientific journey through northern Sweden and Lapland, the descriptions at this point being based upon Linnæus's 'Lachesis Lapponica.' Then a journey through Dalecarlia is described, after which the author follows her hero to the Netherlands and the multifarious good fortune awaiting him there. The first volume ends with his journey to England in 1736. The second volume is less interesting; it deals with the life of Linnæus during the years of his prosperity, and the story of middle-aged success is always much less captivating as a story than that of youthful privation and struggle.

When, now, we turn from this very meagre outline of Mrs. Caddy's subject-matter, and would fain characterize her manner, which is in this case everything, we find a wealth of epithets suggesting themselves. Her manner is by turns learned, satirical, sentimental, polemical, didac-

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tic, gossipy, and sedate. Dubious pun and obvious reflection, poetic sentiment and solid erudition, flow from her pen with equal facility. Interwoven with her sprightly narrative, we find incidental comments upon everything under the sun. Here we have a digression upon "the time-murdering train that dawdles fifteen minutes at every wayside station, . . . and steams in and out of each at one-horse—no, one-donkey or puppy-dog power." There the author indulges in a passing fling at the "horrible, uncivilized print that the Germans blind themselves with." Presently we come across a strong defence of the study of Latin and Greek, with caustic remarks at the expense of those who would discourage such study in the supposed interest of natural science. Here a dash of fine writing or a burst of romantic sentiment; there the speech of common sense and worldly wisdom; and quotations—quotations by the hundred (good ones, too), for the adornment of the tale and the pointing of the writer's reflections. Occasionally a number of these quotations are fired off in quick sequence, like the successive pops of a Roman candle. Then the effect is bewildering; but there is usually entertainment in it, for the language of the book is throughout the language of high breeding and of genuine culture. It is indeed "a pleasant yarn about Linnæus."

Roundabout to Moscow. An Epicurean Journey. By John Bell Bouton. D. Appleton & Co. 1887.

Mr. Bouton is not a Russian, but a Continental, traveller. Though he spent a short time in Moscow and in St. Petersburg, the principal portion of his journey was in the regions of "roundabout." He begins his story with the gaming tables of Monte Carlo, and afterwards runs through the well-known itinerary of tourists, southward to Paestum, at Rome during Easter, in Switzerland when the passes became practicable, and so on through the guide-book stations of Germany to Russia, and homeward by Sweden and Norway and Amsterdam. The narrative is an easy-going diary, and is enlivened by a somewhat free use of the characters of chance acquaintances and specimens of their conversation. After reading passages of this nature, one comes to think the traditional frozen-up Englishman the pattern of discretion. The young man from North Adams and the art critic from Philadelphia will hardly peruse the pages devoted to them with the good-humor that seems ordinarily to be among their amiable qualities. The freshest part of the book is that which concerns Russia, of which our knowledge is in some respects so full, and in others so defective as to amount only to ignorance. Mr. Bouton was surprised at the apparent looseness of the officials in examining his passport, and at his freedom from annoyance by the police; he found summer travelling, contrary to common report, very pleasant for one accustomed to American heats; and if he did not stray from the beaten paths, or meet with any adventures, or look on common things with new eyes, he certainly enjoyed his dinners and had a good time. The surface view obtained in a rapid tour along well-known lines of travel can make no great claim for itself; at the most, Mr. Bouton's book is a long letter from a press correspondent.

Letters from the Far East. By De Lancey Floyd-Jones. Public Service Publishing Company.

In a book of very comely appearance, Col. De Lancey Floyd-Jones of the United States Army has brought together his letters written to relatives during his recent trip round the world. Collected from the newspapers in which they were originally printed, they now form a connected narrative of travel without the slightest pretence to literary excellence or rhetorical embellishment. The illustrations, numbering one short of a dozen, are well chosen and beautifully executed; and all the appurtenances of a good book (except an index) put the reader on good terms at once with author and publisher. Without any display of professional knowledge, one discovers that the writer's military eye was open and alert; and there is a good deal of information pleasantly conveyed, relative to the armed strength of England, India, China, and Japan—the countries visited. Like all visitors to the Mikado's realm, Col. Floyd-Jones is pleased with country and people. Though the title of the book is 'Letters from the Far East,' yet the opening and closing chapters are devoted to the United States, and two are descriptive of England. The narrative is an easy, unpretentious diary of a gentleman who seems in good health, able to enjoy life, and kindly disposed towards humanity and all the world. In one gratifying feature, the book is free from the average grumbler's complaints and impertinent details of discomfort. It is a sunny story of enjoyable travel.

Forty Years of Stewart Rule (1603-1643). By the Author of 'The Heir of Redclyffe.' [Cameos from English History.] Sixth Series. Macmillan & Co. 1887. Pp. 400.

It is hard to find a term which precisely describes Miss Yonge's 'Cameos' of the history of England. They do not form a continuous history, but, on the other hand, they are not wholly detached stories; each "cameo" has a certain completeness in itself, and the subjects are at the same time so selected and arranged as to cover the ground pretty thoroughly and consecutively. Nor are they, as the title would imply, confined to England. The reader can get from the present volume a fair acquaintance with contemporary affairs in France, Germany, and the Netherlands, as is shown by some of the titles—"The Arminian Persecution," "The Snow King" (Gustavus Adolphus), "The Reign of Richelieu." There are in all thirty-one cameos, bringing the story down to the outbreak of the Civil War in 1642. And while it is a period which would naturally invite the expression of the writer's well-known prejudices, we must say that we have found her on the whole fair and impartial. The King's want of good faith is somewhat glossed over, and his offences against the Constitution belittled; but his opponents are not misrepresented and vilified, while, on the other hand, Sir John Eliot and Sir John Hampden are described with hearty praise.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bain, Prof. A. English Composition and Rhetoric. Enlarged ed. D. Appleton & Co.
Bates, A. A Lad's Love. Boston: Roberts Brothers. $1.
Bourgeois, E. Neuchâtel et la Politique Prussienne en Franche Comté (1702-1713). Paris: E. Leroux.
Bynner, E. L. Penelope's Suitors. Tickner & Co. 50 cents.
Carlisle, J. H. Johnson's Memoir of Roger Ascham, and Memoir of Thomas Arnold. Boston: Chautauqua Press. 75 cents.
Claude, Mary S. Twilight Thoughts: Stories for Children. Boston: Ginn & Co. 50 cents.
Comba, E. Histoire des Vaudois d'Italie. F. W. Christern.
Comba, Prof. T. E. Metodo Practico e Naturale per lo Studio della Lingua Italiana. Wm. R. Jenkins. $1.50.
Coombs, Anne S. A Game of Chance. D. Appleton & Co.
Davis, Rev L. E. A Pastor's Thoughts on Living Themes. Tibbals Book Co.
Dilke, Sir C. W. The Present Position of European Politics. Harper & Brothers. 20 cents.
Dodge, D. S. Memorials of W. E. Dodge. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.15.
Gillette, Mrs. F. L. White House Cook Book. Gillette Publishing Co.
Haggard, H. R. Allan Quatermain. Harper & Brothers. 25 cents.
Harte, B. The Crusade of the Excelsior. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Haweis, Rev. H. R. The Conquering Cross (The Church). T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Hawthorne, J. A Tragic Mystery. Cassell & Co. $1.
Heermans, F. Thirteen: Stories of the Far West. Syracuse, N. Y.: C. W. Bardeen.
Heimburg, W. A Penniless Orphan. Geo. Munro.

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